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ABSTRACT

Selected papers from a 1992 seminar on innovations in language teacher education include: "Collaboration in Assessment: Empowering the Individual Course Member" (Leslie Dickinson); "An Approach to the Evaluation of ELT Preparation Programs" (Stephen J. Gaies); "Human Resources Development in the Management of English Language Programs: An Introduction for Teachers" (Martha C. Pennington); "Teachers as Trainers" (David Hayes); "Coping with Teacher Resistance: Insights from Inset Programmes" (V. Saraswathi); "Adapting the Six Category Intervention Analysis to Promote Facilitative Type Supervisory Feedback in Teaching Practice" (Bahiyah Abdul Hamid, Hazita Azman); "Planning a TEFL Education Program: Policies, Perspectives and Promise" (Jan Jackson Fahmy, Linda Bilton); "Using Feedback and Reflections as Tools in Bridging the Theory-Practice Link in Language Teacher Training at the Primary Level" (Gayle Whitson, Peter Bodycott); and "'Process vs. Product' in Language Teacher Education - Shifting the Focus of Course Design" (Ray Parker). (MSE)

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LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION IN A FAST-CHANGING WORLD

REGIONAL LANGUAGE CENTRE

SEAMEO

Edited by

EUGENIUS SADTONO

ANTHOLOGY SERIES 29

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Edited

by

Eugenius Sadtono

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FOREWORD

In April 1992 SEAMEO RELC organised a Regional Seminar on Language Teacher Education in a Fast-Changing World. An important aim of this seminar is to survey developments in language teacher education in various countries. In this volume is a collection of selected papers presented at this seminar. They discuss innovations in teacher education programmes in a number of countries such as Britain, Oman, Thailand, India, Malaysia and Singapore.

Professionals interested in such innovations will find various recommendations concerning the development of teacher education programmes. These include a collaborative assessment scheme, process oriented teaching, f folio approach to evaluation, an adaptation of Heron's Six Category Intervention Analyses and bridging the theory-practice gap in teacher-training.

I would encourage teacher-educators interested in developments in teacher education in the nineties to peruse this collection of papers for a sampling of the ideas and models presented for discussion at the seminar. This selection of papers is made in the belief that it will stimulate further thought and propel teacher-educators to embark on new directions in programme planning and evaluation. This is one way whereby SEAMEO RELC can influence change in the preparation of language teachers in South-East Asia.

Edwin Goh
Director

INTRODUCTION

Language teacher education can never be rigid and prescriptive as the demands of our modern world are changing fast, particularly as they are mostly unpredictable. In addition, it is also culture-bound, so it is difficult to 'prescribe' principles which would be applicable universally. Thus the papers presented here are only an attempt to help us widen our own horizon and to learn from successes and failures our colleagues have had in different parts of the world.

Let us start our journey in the realm of language teacher education with Leslie Dickinson. In his paper "Collaboration in Assessment: Empowering the Individual Course Member", he describes how the learner and the teacher can work together to improve effective language learning by means of collaborative assessment scheme. At Moray House this is done by offering each course member a genuine opportunity to collaborate with tutors in the assessment of his or her own assignments. The findings from his study suggest that there can be a reasonable level of accord between course member grades and tutor grades.

Underlying all these things, he claims that the key to coping with change in education is learner autonomy, empowering the learner to adjust learning objectives, materials and techniques to suit changed circumstances, and self-assessment is one of the ways to reach learner autonomy.

In relation to assessment, Stephen Gaies presents virtually a guideline for an evaluation of ELT preparation programs which most of us would find it useful. His paper "An Approach to the Evaluation of ELT Preparation Programs" has three purposes: to characterize general approaches to the evaluation of programs that prepare teachers of English, to review the reasons for current interest in the evaluation of such programs, and to describe an evaluation project now under way to apply a portfolio approach to the evaluation of teachers of English from the time they enter a teacher-preparation program until three years after they complete the program. The third purpose is interesting to note as this is rarely done for a number of reasons; what we usually do, if we evaluate a program, is to conduct it on an ad hoc basis. Now that we know it, perhaps we can make it as a model for a better program evaluation. By reading his article, we will be able to get a whole picture of program evaluation.

A number of us, EFL teachers, become language program managers by chance, without any academic background in management in general or language teaching program management in particular. In this regard, Martha Pennington's paper is an excellent introduction to the business of language program management in general. It describes among others the components of language program management, i.e. faculty, student and administration components as well as their developments, stressing the interlocking nature of program resources and decisions. She concludes by saying that the main objectives in language program development are to maximize the quality of all resources and to optimize their functioning.

David Hayes' article on "Teachers as Trainers" is a report of a survey conducted in Thailand. From the survey we can see what skills the teachers think they still need to have in order to become good teacher trainers. Hayes argues that being a good teacher does not necessarily mean that one is a good trainer, in the sense that knowing how to do something and to do it well is not the same as being able to communicate that knowledge effectively to other teachers such that the latter are given the skills to reflect upon and perhaps to change their own classroom behaviour.

Those who are in similar situations like Hayes and interested in knowing more about teachers as trainers could conduct their own study using his instruments and see if the results are similar to his findings.

"You can't teach an old dog new tricks" is what Saraswathi would like to disprove in her article "Coping with Teacher Resistance: Insights from INSET Programmes". Using particular "tricks", her INSET programmes have been successful in teaching teachers new ways of teaching English in Tamil Nadu, India; they are willing and able to apply new techniques of teaching to their classrooms. She also compares her research project model with Tony O'Brien's EROTI model and John Heron's Six Category Intervention Analysis model. In comparison with EROTI she finds that her model is more economical, whereas with Six Category Intervention Analysis there is much in common.

With reference to Six Category Intervention Analysis, Bahiyah Abdul Hamid and Hazita Azman in their article "Adapting the Six Category Intervention Analysis to Promote Facilitative Type Supervisory Feedback in Teaching Practice" discuss the meaning and significance of the analysis for supervision of teaching practice. It is hoped that by reading this article, the reader will be able to understand Saraswathi's article above better as she also compares her model with the Six Category Intervention Analysis model.

In terms of planning language teacher education, Fahmy and Bilton contribute an interesting paper on their case study of the undergraduate TEFL education program at Sultan Qaboos University in Oman. They argue that simply transplanting a model designed for a native English setting is not enough and continuous adjustments need to be made for the particular EFL context. The consultants must become familiar with the local sociocultural situation, educational system, and language policies so that their contribution would have a high degree of relevance to the local sociocultural context of language learning and teaching.

Bridging the theory-practice link in language teacher education is no mean task as observed by Whitson and Bodycott in their paper entitled "Using Feedback and Reflection Tools in Bridging the Theory-Practice Link in Language Teacher Training at the Primary Level". The paper examines the theory and practice issue at two levels: (1) maintaining the balance within the course programme and (2) the link between the teacher training site and the schools. In addition, it elaborates on how to increase the transferability of training knowledge to the school site and how to assist students to bridge the gap between theory and practice. Their paper is based on their study of teacher trainees of the Postgraduate Diploma in Education (Primary) English Language training package at the National Institute of Education, Singapore.

'Process vs Product' that is the name of the game at Sheffield City Polytechnic in terms of language teacher education and Ray Parker presents a very useful paper on this topic. His paper, entitled "'Process vs Product' in Language Teacher Education - Shifting the Focus of Course Design", contains an argument for process-oriented teaching. He suggests that product-focussing implies a belief that an identifiable produce can be prepared for an identifiable market and that process-focussing implies the recognition that the demands made upon language teachers are continuously changing in ways that are largely unpredictable.

I am sure you will benefit considerably from reading the papers presented in this anthology.

Eugenius Sadtono
RELC Singapore 1992

COLLABORATION IN ASSESSMENT: EMPOWERING THE INDIVIDUAL COURSE MEMBER

Leslie Dickinson

Abstract

The key to coping with change in education is learner autonomy, empowering the learner (in collaboration with the teacher) to adjust learning objectives, materials and techniques to suit changed circumstances. This paper describes an ongoing experiment at Moray House which seeks to give teachers and trainers on a post-experience Master's course experience of learner autonomy in the crucial realm of assessment, in the belief that this will help participants to develop a sympathetic attitude towards learner autonomy in their students.

The students on the MA in TESOL at Moray House are invited to take part in a collaborative assessment scheme in which they have a genuine opportunity to contribute to the evaluation of their own work. At the same time the scheme ensures that the institution retains responsibility for maintaining appropriate standards and quality.

Preliminary results suggest that there is broad agreement between the student being assessed and the tutor, and interviews with students provide some evidence of a change in attitude towards assessment and learner autonomy.

Introduction

The argument in this paper is reasonably simple; it is as follows:

- An important aim of language teacher education is to produce more effective language learning among pupils;

- a key factor in learning effectiveness is having an active and independent involvement in learning; in other words, having a measure of learning autonomy. This is especially important in a fast changing world.

- The key person in helping pupils to develop a measure of learning autonomy is the teacher.

- However, developing autonomy is a fairly new idea and may be in conflict with the educational tradition. Consequently, some teachers and teacher trainees may not be in sympathy with the idea of autonomy in learning.

- One factor in persuading teachers and trainee teachers to change their views is an experience of autonomy; this has the additional advantage of increasing their own learning autonomy.

- This is done in the MA TESOL course at Moray House partly through an assessment scheme which offers each course member a genuine opportunity to collaborate with tutors in the assessment of his or her own assignments.

- Data from monitoring the scheme confirm previous findings from research in self assessment, that there can be a reasonable level of accord between course member grades and tutor grades; and that the match between course member grades and tutor grades gets closer as course members gain experience of collaborative assessment.

I will develop each of these arguments in the paper, though the main emphasis will be on describing the collaborative assessment scheme and discussing the data from it.

THE IMPORTANCE OF DEVELOPING AUTONOMY IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

There is growing evidence that success in language learning, (and in other subjects) is related to the learner having an active, independent involvement with language learning. I shall call this ***learning*** **autonomy.** Autonomous learners are not necessarily, or even characteristically isolated or independent learners; they may well be found in conventional classrooms, but they can be distinguished from teacher dependent learners in terms of several characteristics. Autonomous learners are able to do the following things:

- identify what is being taught. That is, they are aware of the teacher's objectives;

- state and follow-up their own purposes in addition to the teacher's. That is, they are able to formulate their own learning objectives;

- select and implement appropriate learning strategies;

- monitor their own learning;

- monitor and evaluate their own use of learning strategies;

The claim of the importance of learning autonomy can be supported both from research work in education, including language learning, and through reasoned argument. Wang and Peverly (1986) review findings of strategy research (in subjects other than language learning) and conclude

> "...one feature is salient across the research from the various perspectives. Effective learners are characterised in the research literature as being cognitively and affectively active in the learning process. They are seen as being capable of learning independently and deliberately through identification, formulation and restructuring of goals; use of strategy planning; development and execution of plans; and engagement of self-monitoring. (p.383)

Similar findings have been suggested for language learning. The early research on language learning strategies carried out by such researchers as Rubin (1975), Stern (1975), and Naiman Frölich Stern and Todesco, (1978) indicated that good learners have an active involvement with language learning, that they have clear ideas about the best ways for them to go about language learning, and that they set up their own

learning objectives in addition to the teacher's objectives. Groups like the Centre de Recherches et d'Applications Pédagogiques en Langues (CRAPEL)[1] at the Université de Nancy II in France, and individuals like Ellis and Sinclair (1989), and Dickinson (1987) see language learning best facilitated by the development of greater independence on the part of the learner involving the learner in accepting a greater share of responsibility for his own learning.

It is also possible to make an *a priori* argument in support of autonomy. Bruner (1966) states the argument very well

> Instruction is a temporary state that has as its objective to make the learner or problem solver self-sufficient...otherwise the result of instruction is to create a form of mastery that is contingent upon the perpetual presence of the teacher.

Bruner is saying that the outcome of instruction must, logically, be to make the learner self-sufficient or *autonomous*, since the alternative is the production of a learner who can *only* learn with the help of a teacher.

Furthermore, modern society requires that the educated individual is able to adjust and change, and to continue learning in order to cope with the changing circumstances in a fast changing world, reflected in the theme of this seminar. Thus, among the implications which Lange (1989) draws from his consideration of 'six very broad characteristics of the future "technological society"' are:

> 3. Lifelong learning must be a construct in every teacher development programme.
>
> 4. Experimentation, risk taking, autonomy, and flexibility must be key elements in the development of a model of schooling that places responsibility for learning on students, giving them freedom to try, test, innovate and create.

Twenty years before this, Carl Rogers (1969) argued that learning to be independent as a learner through learning *how* to learn is essential in a fast changing world.

> The only man who is educated is the man who has learned *how* to learn; the man who has learned how to adapt and change; the man who has realised that no knowledge is secure, that only the process of *seeking* knowledge gives a basis for security. (104)

I have argued that learning autonomy is an important outcome of education, is related to learning success, and that it is necessary in a fast changing world. I will now show that it is possible to give teachers and teacher trainees an experience of autonomy through involving them in self-assessment (which is in essence what collaborative assessment is about).

WHAT IS COLLABORATIVE ASSESSMENT?

The collaborative assessment scheme at Moray House has been used with various courses since 1985, and currently operates in the MA TESOL course for English language teacher trainers and language teachers. The central feature of the scheme is the possibility for course members to collaborate with tutors in the assessment of their own assignment work.

The theory behind collaborative assessment is that motivating course members to make self assessments of their own assignments increases their autonomy. However, it is crucially important that this experience of self assessment is taken seriously by both the course member and the tutor. If it is seen merely as a simulation in which the course member's assessment of grade is ignored in the decision on the grade for the assignment, then course members are unlikely to take collaborative assessment seriously. The course member's grade has to be taken seriously, and the course member must feel that the grade he awards himself can make a difference in the decision on the final grade. On the other hand, the institution - represented in this instance by the course tutors - has the vital responsibility for maintaining the standards of the degree. If the course member's grade was accepted automatically then the grading system would quickly become meaningless, and the degree would rightly be seen as worthless. These two apparently conflicting positions can be resolved through the collaborative assessment scheme implemented in Moray House.

In the scheme, each assignment is assessed using explicit criteria (provided by the tutors, but negotiated with the course members). At the point of handing in an assignment, the course member has the option of assessing her own assignment against the criteria and awarding herself a grade according to the marking scheme used in the course. This grade is recorded on the Collaborative Assessment Grade Sheet and submitted to the relevant tutor in a sealed envelope along with the assignment. The tutor then assesses the assignment and awards it a grade according to the criteria.[2] The tutor then, and only then, checks the Collaborative Assessment Grade. If the two grades are the same, then the agreed grade is entered in the record. If the two grades are different - either because the tutor gave a higher grade

than the course member, or because he gave a lower grade than the course member, then the tutor asks the course member to come and negotiate an agreed grade. However, the negotiation must be on the basis of the criteria. If the tutor and course member cannot agree, then there is provision for a third party to be involved, but that is rarely necessary.

In this way, the scheme balances the empowerment of the individual course member to take a meaningful part in his or her own assessment, with the need for the institution to retain responsibility for maintaining standards appropriate to the level of masters degree.

The scheme gives course members the opportunity to develop their autonomy through practising the evaluation of their own work and it gives them an experience of a measure of autonomy through this involvement in self assessment. It raises awareness of several problems and issues in assessment which are important for teachers and teacher trainers to consider. Examples of such issues are the balance between formative and summative functions of assessment; the power which assessment usually bestows upon the teacher/tutor; the relative merits of criterion referenced and norm referenced assessment, and the arbitrary nature of many decisions in assessment. In addition, it has the potential to increase the quality of the course members' work. This occurs through the process of making serious self assessments which requires more thorough familiarity with the assessment criteria because of the need to understand them thoroughly and examine them carefully in order to apply them in collaborative assessment. If course members are involved in negotiation with the tutor over a grade, this also requires close familiarity with the criteria.

HOW DOES COLLABORATIVE ASSESSMENT RELATE TO AUTONOMY?

The essential characteristic of learning autonomy is that the learner makes (some of) the decisions about his or her own learning. That is, the learner retains a proportion of the responsibility for his own learning. So far as the MA TESOL course members are concerned, a crucial indicator of developing autonomy is the acceptance of responsibility for determining whether, and to what degree, a written assignment meets the standards of a Master's level course. The MA TESOL course attempts to provide a progression from the first Term, where course participants are given considerable counselling support, where criteria are carefully explained and where the first assignment - though graded for feedback purposes - is regarded as a practice assignment to help course participants to discover standards of the course,

to the fourth Term, involving the writing and presentation of the dissertation (9 - 10 months after the beginning of the course). At this stage, the course participants are much more autonomous.

Thus, the course participant's decision about whether his assignment work meets appropriate standards develops over the year, up to and including the dissertation, when most course participants are able and prepared to attest to the quality of their own work *vis a vis* the standards of the course. This progression may continue into professional life after the conclusion of the courses where the emergent professional undertakes the presentation of papers at conferences and for publication; here the decision on the standard of the paper is (initially, anyway) for the writer to make. An essential difference between the expert and the novice lies in just this ability to make confident self-assessments. Experts can more confidently self-assess; novices are still learning to do so. But novices do not turn into experts at the touch of a magician's wand; they develop over time through the process of learning.

The ability to assess oneself is a necessary outcome of *any* successful academic learning endeavour. It consists of

> Knowledge of the standards used by the academic community to judge performance at the appropriate level;
>
> the ability to compare one's own performance against those standards and place the performance on some scale. (e.g. That the performance is GOOD, AVERAGE, POOR, NOT ACCEPTABLE.)
>
> The internalisation of the standards and the ability to judge future performance oneself against the internalised standards.

I believe that all successful learning relates to self assessment in a similar way. If one considers language learning, for example, a language element or unit can only be said to be learned when its performance by the learner is accepted by speakers of that language. However, the learner himself must achieve the ability to make some approximate self-assessment of the acceptability of his performance; otherwise he will be constantly uncertain of the acceptability of his performance and constantly teacher (or other informant) dependent.

Collaborative assessment of written assignments in the MA TESOL Course involves similar stages. It involves learning about the appropriate level of performance, judged against some set of standards acceptable to the academic community. These standards are expressed - for a particular assignment topic -in

terms of the criteria supplied by the tutor, and learning to self-assess involves first understanding, and then applying these criteria. A second stage is the establishment of generalised personal criteria based in part on the tutor's criteria, which can be used for any academic endeavour. It is perhaps at this stage, for some people, that the novice begins to turn into an expert.

WHAT EVIDENCE IS THERE THAT COLLABORATIVE ASSESSMENT WORKS?

In order to be convinced that Collaborative Assessment works, one would want positive answers to a series of questions. Perhaps the key question to be answered is *whether course members (CM'S) seriously attempt to assess themselves by applying the criteria in assessment, or do they merely try to bargain in order to get the best grade they can?* This question can be answered in part by comparing the tutor's grade with the course member's grade. If there is a reasonable correlation between the grades awarded by tutors with those awarded by the course members, then this would be some evidence that course members are seriously attempting to assess themselves.

The data in Table 1 shows the correlation between Tutor's grades and course members' grades for one group of MA students over the year. The correlation between the tutor's grades and the course members' for the first assignment is very low, (0.11; $p = 0.57$) indicating no relationship. However, the level of correlation over the next two assignments increases, though it does not reach statistical significance.[3] (For assignment 3 it was 0.33; $p = 0.15$; and for assignment 4 it was 0.52; $p = .009$).

TABLE 1.

DATA FOR COLLABORATIVE ASSESSMENT
1990-91

n = 29

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
SEX	T:1	C:1	T:3	CA:3	T:4	CA:4
1	4	4	4	4	4	4
2	2	4	*	*	3	4
1	5	4	4	4	5	5
1	3	3	3	4	4	4
1	3	4	3	3	4	4
1	2	5	*	*	4	4
1	3	3	*	*	3	4
2	4	3	4	3	*	*
2	1	4	2	3	3	4
1	4	4	3	4	5	4
1	5	4	4	3	4	4
2	4	4	4	4	4	4
1	4	2	4	3	3	3
2	3	4	3	4	4	4
2	4	3	*	*	*	*
2	4	4	*	*	*	*
2	1	3	*	*	*	*
1	4	5	4	4	4	5
2	3	4	*	*	4	5
2	4	4	*	*	4	4
1	5	4	4	4	5	5
1	5	5	4	5	5	5
1	5	5	5	5	5	5
2	4	5	3	4	4	4
2	4	3	4	3	4	3
2	*	*	3	3	*	*
2	5	3	5	5	4	5
2	4	3	5	3	5	4

Notes:

Labels: T:1 = Tutor grade for Assignment 1; CA:1 = Course member grade for assignment 1.

Sex: 1=Male; 2=Female.

Grades: Assignments are graded A-E. Numerical values have been assigned as follows A=5; B=4; C=3; D=2; E=1

CORRELATIONS:

Correlation of T:1 and CA:1 = 0.1138, n=28, p=0.571
Correlation of T:3 and CA:3 = 0.3253, n=21, p=0.147
Correlation of T:4 and CA:4 = 0.5181, n=24, p=0.009

One interpretation of the data - the one I prefer for obvious reasons - is that course members are seriously attempting to assess themselves against the criteria, and that they get better at it over the period of the course. We would expect this pattern; when course members begin the course, they have to discover the expectations of the tutors and the standards they are expected to achieve. The increasing correlations proceeding from the very low correlations of the first assignment to the much higher are for the third assignment may indicate that this learning process is going on.

However, there are additional favourable indications that course members seriously attempt to assess themselves. We[4] collected the views of a group of students[5] on several aspects of assessment including the purposes of assessment and the authority of the tutor in assessment. They were asked to complete a questionnaire right at the beginning of their courses, and before they had taken part in collaborative assessment.

We reasoned as follows: one view of the motivation of course members for taking part in Collaborative Assessment was that many do so in order to bargain for a better grade, without reference to what they thought they deserved. If it was the case that most students regarded the purpose of assessment as summative - that is more concerned with certification than with learning, then this would be evidence in support of the **bargaining** view. They would be less likely to make a sincere attempt to assess themselves against the criteria. We also reasoned that the course members' beliefs about the authority of tutors' decisions in assessment were crucial. If most students believed that tutors' interpretation of criteria, and their application

of them should be regarded as absolute, then it was less likely to be the case that participants in collaborative assessment were sincerely attempting to assess themselves. There would be little point since the tutors' decisions were irrefutable, and the only point would be to bargain for a better grade.

The purpose of assessment

The question of whether assessment is regarded by course members as a device for comparing students and testing their knowledge, or whether it is also perceived mainly as helping in learning was answered by all 34 course members. Just under half (47%) regarded "helping students to learn " as the most important reason for having assignments, and 29% placed it second in importance. None of those questioned regarded "comparing students" as an important reason for having assignments. 20.6% thought that the main reason for assignments was to test how much the students knew, and 26.5% regarded it as the second most important reason. Thus, there is no support here for the view that the main purpose of assessment is summative. The majority of these course members regarded the main purpose of assessment as formative, and therefore they are more likely to sincerely attempt to assess their own grade.

The authority of the tutor in assessment.

We asked the course members about their view of the authority of the tutor at Moray House, and - since all the respondents to this questionnaire are teachers by profession - their view as teachers about their own authority over their pupils. We asked first about students in general; *Did participants believe that students know what mark they deserve for a piece of work?* 23.5% believed that students always know, 64.7% believed that students sometimes know, and 8.8% believed that students usually did not know what mark they deserved for a piece of work. We then asked about the respondents themselves; *did the individual know what mark he or she deserved?* As one would expect, the results were similar; 26.5% claimed to know always, 52.9% reported that they sometimes knew whilst 8.8% usually did not know.

When we asked *whether it was desirable for students to have this ability*, 63.3% agreed that it was, while 30% had reservations and 6.7% believed that it was undesirable.

The participants were then asked *whether tutors ought to help students to develop ability in self-assessment*. 66.7% agreed that tutors should help students in this, whilst 21% thought that this was a possibility. 6.5% thought that it was a low priority (to be done only if there was time) and 6.5% believed that tutors should not help students to learn to self-assess.

Taking these results together as an indicator of attitude towards the authority of the tutor in assessment, then about two thirds of the respondents thought that it was desirable for students to have the ability to estimate their marks, and a similar proportion saw it as an aspect of the tutor's job to help students to develop this ability. A high proportion of the respondents (88%) indicated a belief that students have opinions about how well they have performed in a particular assignment, and just under 80% reported that they themselves have reasonably reliable opinions about how well they have performed.

If we can take these views as typical of course members taking the MA TESOL course (which is a big assumption), then taken as a whole, the results indicate that the majority of course members are likely to enter into collaborative assessment with the intention of genuinely attempting to estimate their own grades on the basis of the criteria, and that over the year they get better at doing so.

Whatever the interpretation of this data, which anyway can only be illustrative, we believe that collaborative assessment is a valuable aspect of the MA TESOL course. It encourages course members to reassess their views about the purposes of assessment, and to re-consider their opinions on the respective roles of course members and tutors in assessment. My main theme was, of course, that collaborative assessment is an experience of autonomy, and that this experience of autonomy will help course members to develop a positive attitude towards learning autonomy in their own students, which is an important requirement for success in language learning, particularly in a fast changing world.

NOTES.

1. See, in particular Riley, P. (1985)

2. We have a careful system of double marking to ensure equitable standards among tutors. However, this is not relevant in this paper.

3. The correlations have been calculated for letter grades on a five point scale A - E; Tutor's grade and student's grade are regarded as the same only when there is an exact match e.g. both giving a 'C' grade. One alternative which is sometimes used in Collaborative assessment (See Boud 1987) is to accept grades as "the same" when they differ by up to 10%. We did not collect data which would allow us to use the alternative.

4. The research being reported was carried out by Gillies Haughton and myself.

5. The data for collaborative assessment of this group of students was not available when I wrote this paper.

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AN APPROACH TO THE EVALUATION OF ELT PREPARATION PROGRAMS

Stephen J Gaies

Abstract

Although the importance of systematic program evaluation is widely recognized, the focus of discussions of program evaluation in our field has been on language-learning programs. With some notable exceptions, the issues surrounding the evaluation of ELT preparation programs have been given much less prominence. This paper has three purposes: (a) to characterize general approaches to the evaluation of programs that prepare teachers of English; (b) to review the reasons for increased interest in the evaluation of such programs; and (c) to describe an evaluation project now under way to apply a portfolio approach to the evaluation of teachers of English from the time they enter a teacher-preparation program until three years after they complete the program. Although some aspects of the project may be institution-specific (and may thus be less relevant to other teacher-preparation settings), the basic assumptions, principles and procedures of this project may well provide a useful model for the development of systematic evaluation of programs elsewhere.

Introduction

EVALUATION OF TEACHER-PREPARATION PROGRAMS

Program evaluation--the systematic collection of information about the effectiveness of the various components of an educational program--is an area that periodically flashes into prominence in discussions of language teaching and learning. From the much-discussed attempts of the 1960's and 1970's to evaluate the effectiveness of different language-teaching methods to the sharp debate about particular programs--of which the Bangalore/Madras Communicational Teaching Project is perhaps the most salient example--evaluation has typically been recognized as a crucial area of second/foreign language education. Its status as a basic area of interest in our field appears to be growing more solid (see, for example, Alderson & Beretta, 1992).

The need for systematic evaluation of teacher-preparation programs is also recognized; however, for a variety of reasons the issues surrounding evaluation of such programs have been less publicized, less controversial. One might speculate that this is the result of a tendency in our field to pay less attention to the teacher's contribution to classroom learning than to other elements: methodology, syllabus, or program model, to name a few. Or perhaps the problem is that evaluation of teacher-preparation programs takes place constantly, at least on an informal basis, as part of the day-to-day, and year-to-year, work of educational institutions. It is often done on an ad hoc basis, without much concern for how the efforts of one institution compare with those of others--perhaps with the view that any evaluation, systematic or not, must be unique. And although it is precisely the uniqueness of any evaluation project that many specialists are now seeking to tap (Cronbach et al., 1980) by encouraging the dissemination of case histories in program evaluation, there are, quite clearly, commonalities in ways in which programs respond to the demand for periodic evaluation.

These typically include some combination of internal and external review. External review in the United States often makes use of some independent accreditation agency--in the area of teacher education, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), together with other bodies, such as the Renaissance Group, a national consortium of higher education institutions with a special focus on the areas of teacher education, or the North Central Association, formulate standards and review programs. For example, of the 1500 or so approved professional education programs in the United States, approximately one third are accredited by NCATE.

Program evaluation is by definition multidimensional. In many cases, an examination of some sort will be used to compare students exiting a program with those completing similar programs. Examinations, together with other quantitative (such as employment rate of graduates, percentage of graduates still in the field after a certain number of years, percentage of graduates participating in professional organizations and other activities) and qualitative measures (such as employer satisfaction with graduates), are often used in conjunction with formal internal and external program reviews in order to evaluate a program.

WHY THE HEIGHTENED INTEREST IN TEACHER-PREPARATION PROGRAM EVALUATION?

All systematic program evaluations have two different aims: one internal and one external. The former has to do with the use of data on student learning (outcomes)

as a means for validating existing academic programs and for indicating needed or desirable curricular change. It is a means by which the fit between program goals and the activities that make up a program can be measured.

The external aim of student outcomes assessment is to demonstrate the accountability of an institution and of the programs within an institution to the larger public: taxpayers, funding agencies, professional accreditation and licensing bureaus, and all other stakeholders.

Increased interest in the evaluation of programs that prepare teachers of English as a second language is the result of two different external pressures: one that reflects a general demand affecting higher education in general, the other reflecting development within the discipline itself:

1. **The demand that institutions of higher education be held accountable for the quality of the education that they provide**

   During the 1980's, there has been frequent criticism of higher education (including teacher preparation programs) in the United States. Some have criticized the quality of higher education; others target what they claim is a failure of higher education to hold itself accountable and to demonstrate the quality of their programs. In difficult fiscal times, this criticism typically becomes more pointed; in short, to use the phrase currently in fashion in Great Britain, stakeholders want "value for money."

   The result has been increased pressure on higher education generally and professional preparation programs in particular to demonstrate the competence of students exiting such programs. Virtually every state in the United States has enacted legislation or administrative policies that apply both to new and in-service teachers.

2. **The evolution of professional standards**

   Even if higher education were not under attack, teacher-preparation programs are more accountable to emerging standards developed within our own field. In other words, the need for systematic program evaluation is a by-product of the professionalization of English language teaching during the last few decades. The TESOL organization's Guidelines for the Certification and Preparation of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages in the United States (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other

Languages, 1975), its Statement of Core Standards for Language and Professional Preparation Programs (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 1984), and its recent Statement on the Preparation of Primary and Secondary Teachers in the United States (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 1992), together with the procedures for self-study that it has developed for use by individual teacher-preparation programs, are good examples of this.

WHAT IS STUDENT OUTCOMES ASSESSMENT?

Assessment is part of the larger activity of **evaluation:**

> **Assessment** refers to the set of processes through which we make judgments about a learner's [in this case, a pre-service teacher's] level of skills and knowledge. **Evaluation** refers to the wider process of collecting and interpreting data in order to make judgments about a particular program or programs. (Nunan, 1990, p. 62)

Even in the absence of systematic program evaluation, assessment takes place on a regular basis within the context of individual courses: Testing and grading in any course are basic forms of student assessment. As a part of the larger activity of program evaluation, assessment must be broader in nature. It must aim at the collection, analysis, and interpretation of measures of student learning and performance at the level of major programs; the data collected must serve in gauging the effectiveness of each academic program and of an entire department.

Briefly stated, **student outcomes assessment** is an attempt to measure student learning as it relates to and informs an academic or professional program, rather than as a narrow measure of individual students themselves. In their discussion of state-based approaches to assessment in undergraduate education, Boyer and Ewell (1988) define student outcomes assessment as

> any process of gathering concrete evidence about the impact and functioning of undergraduate education. The term can apply to processes that provide information about individual students, about curricula or programs, about institutions or about entire systems of institutions. The term encompasses a range of procedures including testing, survey methods, performance measures or feedback to individual students, resulting in both quantitative and qualitative information.

Student outcomes assessment seeks to gather evidence about the congruence between an institution's stated mission, goals and objectives, and the actual outcomes of its academic programs and co-curricular activities. It represents an attempt to assign a central position, in the evaluation of a program, to learning outcomes. It provides an organizing mechanism for addressing "two fundamental questions: (1) What do you expect of your students? and (2) How do you know if your students are meeting your expectations?" (Memo from UNI Student Outcomes Assessment Committee to Department Heads, July 12, 1990)

Two points need to be emphasized. First, student outcomes assessment is not, in and of itself, a form of program evaluation. Rather, it is just one of many vehicles which may help an institution evaluate a program in order to improve teaching and learning and to create a better fit between what it aims to do and what it in fact achieves. Second, the assessment of student outcomes is directed at evaluating of the teacher-preparation program itself (and of its various components), not at determining the success of individual students.

To suggest some of the reasons why student outcomes assessment may be a valuable organizing force in invigorating ELT-preparation program evaluation, this paper will describe one initiative in student outcomes assessment that has recently been developed and will soon be implemented.

AN INITIATIVE IN STUDENT OUTCOMES ASSESSMENT

Background

In December 1990, the Iowa Board of Regents instructed each of the three Regents universities (The University of Iowa, Iowa State University, and the University of Northern Iowa) to develop its own local plan of outcomes assessment for every undergraduate major. The Regents Office itself was responding to a legislative request for such plans.

The model recommended to the Regents Office by an interinstitutional subcommittee was formulated by the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges (NASULGC). A Statement of Principles on Student Outcomes Assessment, approved by the Executive Committee of NASULGC in November 1988, provides the philosophical foundations and strategic rationale for the model.

In response to this directive, a university-wide Student Outcomes Assessment Committee was formed at the University of Northern Iowa (UNI) in early 1991. This committee in turn instructed each academic department to form its own Student Outcomes Assessment Committee.

The Draft Plan

The purposes of UNI's Department of English (Language & Literature) Student Outcomes Assessment Plan are (1) to enhance learning among the students who elect the Department's major courses and programs and (2) to provide a factual foundation for the development and improvement of those courses and programs. Although the Plan encompasses all of the Department's major programs, our concern will be with the TESOL Program only.

The Development of the Student Outcomes Assessment Plan for TESOL
The outcomes (goals) and the competencies associated with each of these (see Appendix A) that have been developed for undergraduate TESOL majors are based on a number of efforts to establish standards and goals for ESOL teacher education and TESOL curriculum development. Among these can be mentioned the Guidelines for the Certification and Preparation of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages in the United States (TESOL, 1975) and--a more direct influence--the current endorsement requirements for ESL (K-12) formulated by the Iowa Department of Education. Existing mission statements and strategic planning proposals formulated in connection with on-going internal departmental program evaluation were also consulted.

Frequency of Assessment

Assessment will take place at four stages of a student's career:

1. **Declaration of major**
2. **Mid-program** (defined, for practical purposes, as the semester in which the student enrolls for the 91st credit hour; normally about the second semester of the junior year)
3. **Prior to graduation** (during the last semester of the student's program)
4. **One to three years after graduation**

Methods of Assessment

The principal method of assessment will be the individual student file, or portfolio. A portfolio is precisely what the term suggests: a collection of a teacher's (of a teacher-in-preparation's) products that individually and collectively portray that teacher's attainment. A portfolio may consist of a large variety of entries, although in the study described in this paper, a good deal of guidance is provided in terms of what the entries should illustrate.

In recent years, portfolios have been used more widely in pre- and in-service teacher assessment (see, for example, Cray & Currie, 1992; Loakner, Cromwell, & O'Brien, 1985; Shulman, 1989). In contrast to the multiple-choice examination format by which teacher competency is often assessed on a large-scale basis, the portfolio approach views teaching as complex behavior involving "thought and action with regard to [learners], purposes, and content in particular contexts" (Shulman, 1989, p. 15). Several researchers (see, for example, Olhausen & Ford, 1990; Shulman, 1989) have found the portfolio approach to be an effective way to document growth and to provide a record of change. They have also argued that an assessment program based on a portfolio approach engenders a greater sense of autonomy and responsibility and helps to personalize the assessment process.

These portfolios will serve as a comprehensive data base from which to assess student learning during the major program. Again, however, it must be emphasized that in contrast to the most common use of portfolios--to assess the learning of individual students--in the study described in this paper portfolios serve as a primary database for the evaluation of the program itself.

All students, at the time of their declaration of a TESOL major, will be introduced to the portfolio concept: the assessment program, purposes of assessment, the portfolio and its contents, the means by which students will compile their portfolios, the process by which portfolios will be reviewed, and the confidentiality of the entire procedure will be explained. Although some exceptions may be warranted, completion of a portfolio will be a graduation requirement. Appendix B provides a listing of the types of material that will be part of each student's portfolio.

Analysis, Interpretation, and Reporting of Results

Data will be analyzed annually by a departmental committee, the members of which will serve staggered two-year terms. Prior to end of the Spring semester, a written report will be submitted by this committee to the Head of the Department, the English Senate, and the Department Curriculum Committee.

One of the major aims of the trialling period of the assessment plan is to discover how the data can best be used. The guiding principle of the departmental committee is that the value of the data collected depends on the quality of the questions that we want the data to answer. Among the questions that seem promising to explore are the following:

1. What kind of work--library research, examinations, practice-oriented projects, homework assignments--do students submit to their portfolio to demonstrate attainment of particular competencies? (In the case of this and all succeeding questions, the necessary follow-up question will be, Are there differences in between the second and third assessment stages?)

2. How much writing do students do in their major program? Are the courses in the program dominated by examinations, or do students have frequent and meaningful opportunities to produce written work?

3. Is there evidence from the portfolios that certain sequences of courses would be more effective than others? For example, do recurrent shortcomings and deficiencies in the kind of work students produce in one course suggest the need for some other course to be taken first?

Current Status of the Student Outcomes Assessment Plan

A draft version of the Student Outcomes Assessment Plan was submitted to the University Student Outcomes Assessment Committee in December 1991. It was reviewed during the current (Spring 1992) semester; also during this semester, the departmental committee will conduct a trial implementation of the draft plan and will report the results of the trial and submit a revised plan to the University Committee by May 1992.

SELECTED OBSERVATIONS ABOUT THE USE OF STUDENT OUTCOMES ASSESSMENT AS A FOCAL COMPONENT OF AN ELT-PREPARATION PROGRAM

This model for the evaluation of an ELT teacher-preparation program is in the developmental and trial stage; it remains to be seen whether it proves fully practicable or indeed whether it is as useful as our initial judgments suggest. Our experience in developing a student outcomes assessment plan has led to a number of provisional observations about student outcomes assessment:

1. It uses student outcomes--the knowledge base, skills, and values and attitudes--as a focal point for program evaluation: for the (re)formulation of aims, for the development of other components of systematic program evaluation.

2. It promotes a developmental view of teacher preparation and growth.

Student outcomes assessment and the use of portfolios to assess those outcomes are based on the assumption that the structure of (teacher-preparation) programs requires that the process be repeated at several stages in the student's life cycle and continuing into the student's teaching career.

In this respect, outcomes assessment has the following advantages as an organizing component of program evaluation:

a. Student outcomes assessment allows for -- and indeed encourages -- formative evaluation of a program, in the form of periodic assessment of student outcomes as a group of students moves through the program. Such a program also allows for timely evaluation of new elements introduced into a program.

b. Student outcomes assessment encourages a developmental view of teacher preparation. It focuses on the emergence, over the history of a student in a teacher-preparation program and beyond that program into the first years of service, of professional knowledge, skills, and attitudes. This is especially important in undergraduate teacher preparation for English language teaching. Whereas students entering our and other M.A. programs have often had years of teaching experience, and whereas they usually have a fairly clear idea of what they hope to gain, in terms of increased marketability, from an M.A., undergraduate students often give the impression of having little idea of the nature of the field or of current

and future market conditions. We feel that it is important to tap, in as systematic a fashion as possible, the reasons why students declare a TESOL major: What has generated their interest in English language teaching? What are their expectations? How do they hope to use the credentials offered by the program?

Similarly, we feel that it is important to gauge the development of a professional awareness among students as they move through their academic preparation for a teaching career. Do students near the end of their preparation provide evidence of a perceptibly greater sense of what teaching is, or can be, than they did at the time of entry into the program? How well do they understand the nature of teaching? Do their perceptions near the end of their academic program coincide with or differ radically from their perceptions as in-service teachers?

Finally, we would like to have the insights of our program graduates. How do they view their professional preparation now that they are engaged in full-time teaching? What knowledge, skills, and other competencies do they feel were underrepresented in their program? What did they learn that is marginal to their work as teachers? What specific recommendations would they make for tailoring the program more closely to the demands of their current teaching position?

3. Engages teachers-in-preparation as active agents in the processes of curriculum-evaluation and -renewal.

One of the strongest arguments for the use of a portfolio approach is that it requires the active participation of students. What do our teachers-in-preparation believe will demonstrate attainment of the competencies for each outcome? What work of theirs do they want in the portfolio?

It should also be pointed out that a limited number of students in the program currently serve as consultants to the departmental committee. They are helping to compile post hoc portfolios of their work to help test the feasibility of the portfolio approach and to assist in other aspects of the formative evaluation of the student outcomes assessment program. Our hope is that the participation of these students will have a ripple effect on the student population as a whole by helping to publicize the purposes and procedures of this initiative in program evaluation and by shaping the perception that this effort "belongs" to students themselves as much as it does to the teaching and administrative personnel.

4. Builds habits of inquiry and a culture of evidence about student learning

Although a considerable portion of the data in the portfolios may not be easy to analyze, portfolios, however cumbersome they may be, do represent an effort to supplement intuition with empirical evidence. There is no shortage of opinion about what teacher preparation should be or about how effectively students are being prepared to handle the demands of classroom teaching; student outcomes assessment seeks to establish a preference for the systematic collection and comprehensive (as opposed to piecemeal) analysis of evidence.

5. Reveals the interaction between top-down and bottom-up processes of curriculum renewal

Recent discussions of curriculum renewal have made use of a distinction between top-down and bottom-up processes. The former, also known as the centre-periphery, or power-coercive model, is the kind most closely associated with systems in which a central authority (for example, a Ministry of Education) issues directives (with or without guidance) to be implemented at the local level. The latter, a "grass roots" approach, involves change that is initiated at the local level in response to local needs, problems, or interests.

There has been a strong tendency to emphasize the inherent value of bottom-up initiatives in curriculum renewal. The work of Stenhouse (1975), for example, is widely quoted in our literature, and there is a strong belief in greater efficacy of curriculum renewal that has its origin within an institution rather than that which is imposed from above.

Our experience so far suggests what may be obvious: Top-down and bottom-up approaches are not discrete polar categories; if they are useful in identifying where the impetus for change originates, they do not portray how the two approaches can interact within the context of a particular effort at curriculum renewal.

For example, in the early stages of developing plans for trialling the draft version of the plan described in this paper, it was decided that we might use student outcomes assessment as a means for strengthening our links with in-service teachers who may or may not have done coursework at the University of Northern Iowa--teachers who in many cases had little or no formal training in teaching English to speakers of other languages, but who had been assigned to such classes anyway (a not uncommon occurrence in many areas of the United States[1]).

A presentation (Gaies, 1992) at state-wide conference on teaching English as a second language included a workshop session in which in-service teachers helped to select survey and interview procedures that they felt would be most useful in tapping their insights about the kind of preparation that they would have liked to have and about the knowledge base, skills, and attitudes that they believe are necessary for successful teaching of English as a second language. Several of the workshop participants volunteered to participate in a survey and structured interview and to recruit additional respondents from among their colleagues from around the state.

This dimension of the program, although not directly concerned with student outcomes assessment itself, may be valuable in two ways: (a) by publicizing the program and the University's responsiveness to accountability, and (b) more important perhaps, by providing data that we would not otherwise be able to collect for several years (that is, until the group of students entering the program this year have completed their degree and are working in the field) and that can serve as a point of reference for our analysis of data collected from our own students and for our evaluation of the outcomes and competencies that have been used to create the very framework for the collection of data.

In short, we have taken a top-down directive and reshaped it to our own needs even while we have adhered to the minimum requirements of the directive. This is, we believe, a valuable illustration of the common phenomenon of top-down directives inspiring and being in their turn reshaped by the interests and needs of a local program.

CONCLUSION

In its Statement of Principles on Student Outcomes Assessment (1988), the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges points out that "it takes time to design and institute effective assessment programs. A report by the College Outcomes Evaluation Program in New Jersey acknowledges that it may take ten years to fully implement the state's plan" (p. 4). The cautious attitude voiced in the NASULGC document is worth bearing in mind. Although the development of a program for on-going evaluation based on student outcomes assessment has been remarkably smooth so far, many questions have yet to be fully addressed. For example, although we are making provisions for having all students compile a portfolio, we have not ruled out the possibility that some form of sampling will be used to analyze the data in the portfolios. Programs with large student enrollments and/or with limited resources will certainly have to consider some form of

sampling. But beyond the practical problems surrounding the use of portfolios--the record-keeping, the need to educate students about the nature and purpose of portfolios, and the requirements for storage space and human resources to make effective use of the data in the portfolios--another issue looms. This is precisely the issue raised in the NASULGC Statement mentioned above: Will it be possible to sustain the initial enthusiasm for this innovation in the evaluation of teacher preparation? By its nature, student outcomes assessment--with or without the use of portfolios--must be on-going, and there is some concern about the ability of a committee with a continually rotating membership to maintain the level of energy needed for a useful analysis of student outcomes.

Despite these and other unresolved issues, we remain enthusiastic about the prospects for learning more about our ELT-preparation program through the assessment of student outcomes. In conjunction with other elements of a well-rounded scheme for systematic program evaluation, student outcomes assessment appears to have great potential to provide relevant data through a process that itself may have considerable positive backwash on the very individuals with whom we are concerned: our current and future teachers-in-preparation.

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1. Many individual states have only recently formulated licensure requirements for teaching English as a second language in public schools. In many states, including Iowa, the full effect of certification or endorsement requirements will not be felt until members of the current generation of (undertrained) teachers must renew their teaching certificates.

APPENDIX A

Student Outcomes Assessment Plan
University of Northern Iowa
Department of English Language and Literature

Bachelor of Arts: TESOL
Bachelor of Arts: TESOL--Teaching*

OUTCOMES AND COMPETENCIES

For All TESOL Degree Programs

Outcome 1 Students shall understand the structure of language, with particular emphasis on English.

Competency 1.1 Be able to recognize and interpret basic features and processes of the phonological, morphological, semantic, and syntactic subsystems of English.

Competency 1.2 Be familiar with fundamental concepts and procedures in the description and analysis of a language and with the application of linguistic description and analysis to the teaching and learning of a second or foreign language.

Competency 1.3 Be aware of the different ways in which a language system can be analyzed and the relevance, for teaching English to speakers of other languages, of recognizing the formal, functional, and symbolic properties of language.

Outcome 2 Students shall be familiar with the principles and practices of teaching English to speakers of other languages.

Competency 2.1 Be able to identify and distinguish different methods, program models, and approaches to syllabus design, curriculum and materials development, assessment, and program evaluation.

Competency 2.2 Be familiar with a range of procedures for planning and executing classroom instruction in English as a second/foreign language.

Competency 2.3 Be familiar with practices for continued professional growth.

Outcome 3 Students shall understand the process of language development.

Competency 3.1 Be conversant with substantive and methodological issues in first- and second-language acquisition research.

Competency 3.2 Be able to identify major findings of language-acquisition research and interpret their relevance to classroom teaching and learning of English as a second/foreign language.

Outcome 4 Students shall understand the interrelationship of language, society, and culture.

Competency 4.1 Understand basic concepts and principles of synchronic and diachronic variation.

Competency 4.2 Be familiar with the relationship between language and societal and cultural change and recognize the implications of this interrelationship for language teaching and learning.

Competency 4.3 Be familiar with the social psychological dimensions of language learning and use and their implications for language teaching and learning.

Outcome 5 Students shall be familiar with TESOL as a professional activity.

Competency 5.1 Be conversant with the history of teaching English to speakers of other languages in this century; the current status of TESOL as a recognized professional activity (e.g., in regard to certification, endorsement, and other licensing standards); and current standards for the development and evaluation of English as a second language programs.

Competency 5.2 Be able to access and use the literature and other resources in order to engage effectively in professional writing and other activities.

For TESOL-Teaching Only

Outcome 6 Students shall have supervised experience in observing, planning, and executing teaching and learning activities for an ESL classroom.

Competency 6.1 Demonstrate familiarity with and the ability to conform to the etiquette of teacher observation and supervision.

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*The Department of English Language & Literature at UNI offers three different undergraduate majors in TESOL: (a) TESOL, (b) TESOL--Teaching, and (c) TESOL/Modern Language. The TESOL--Teaching major differs only slightly from the TESOL major and is intended for those students who plan to teach English as a second language in the public schools of Iowa or some other state. For the TESOL--Teaching major, a sixth outcome is included: "Students shall have supervised experience in observing, planning, and executing teaching and learning activities for an ESL classroom." This outcome supplements, but is not identical to, the supervised student teaching that all teaching majors at UNI must do to meet degree requirements.

In its review of the draft plan, the University Student Outcomes Assessment Committee called for clearer differentiation, if necessary, between the outcomes and competencies for the TESOL/Modern Language major and those for the other two majors. The departmental committee is currently addressing this issue.

APPENDIX B

STUDENT OUTCOMES ASSESSMENT PROGRAM
Description of Portfolio Contents

Portfolios will contain at least the following information:

1. Declaration of major

1.1 Final high school transcript
1.2 ACT/SAT scores
1.3 Registrar's degree audit
1.4 Declaration of major form
1.5 A letter of interest written by the student and addressing the following:

- Intended major(s)/minor(s) and reasons for seeking them
- Previous preparation and experience relevant to the major
- Awards and honors received
- Postgraduation career/education goals
- Expected relation between major and postgraduation goals

1.6 Any other materials relevant to the degree sought that the student wishes to submit

2. Mid-program

2.1 Registrar's degree audit
2.2 Such papers and examinations as students may feel reflect their having gained any competencies stipulated under the "outcomes" listed for their program. (The relation claimed between papers/examinations and relevant competencies will be indicated on a check-off sheet at the time the documents are entered, and the check-off sheet can then be used as a suggestive guide to the students' subsequent course of study.)

3. Just before graduation

3.1 Registrar's degree audit
3.2 Written assessments or performance evaluations from any practicum, cooperative experience, or similar activity
3.3 GRE, LSAT or similar examination scores if available
3.4 List of awards and honors received

3.5 Such papers and examinations as students may feel reflect their having gained any competencies stipulated under the "outcomes" listed for their program. (The relation claimed between papers/examinations and relevant competencies will be indicated on a check-off sheet at the time the documents are entered.)

4. One to three years after graduation

4.1 Completed alumni survey

HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT IN THE MANAGEMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROGRAMS: AN INTRODUCTION FOR TEACHERS

MARTHA C PENNINGTON

Abstract

In place of a traditional focus on educational and curricular concerns, language program management is described in terms of the development of human resources in the categories of students, faculty, and administration. Such an orientation is provided as an introduction to program management for language teachers who have long-term career aspirations in ESL/ELT and whose preparation did not include coursework related to program management or administration.

Introduction

As it is usually conceptualized, language program development or management centers on curricular matters such as teaching, materials, and testing. Indeed, many authors in the ESL or ELT fields virtually equate the terms "language program" and "language curriculum." For this reason, most language teacher preparation programs, if they offer any coursework at all in program development or management, tend to focus such courses on curriculum design. However, the view of language programs as identical to their curricula is not the only perspective from which the organization and management of language education can be viewed. While the concerns associated with curriculum are naturally central to any language teaching enterprise, these concerns are not in fact all there is to designing and running a language program.

It is possible to view a language program from a very different angle, one which is only peripherally related to the perspective that focuses on curricular concerns. From this new perspective, the focus moves away from strictly educational matters and towards administrative matters. As confirmed by research on the administration of ESL programs (e.g., Matthies, 1983; Pennington, 1991; Pennington & Xiao, 1990; Reasor, 1980), the educational concerns that are naturally the focus of teacher preparation in language teaching are in fact rather

peripheral to language program management. It would seem, therefore, that anyone who has long-term career aspirations in the ESL/ELT field could benefit by knowing something about language program development from the administrative side.

The present paper offers an introduction to language program management that is intended to supplement the information provided in the typical ESL/ELT teacher preparation course. From the administrative point of view, a language program can be conceptualized in terms of the development and management of resources. The resources of a language program comprise both physical resources such as classrooms and materials and the human resources (Hershey & Blanchard, 1977) of students, faculty, and administrative staff. The focus of the present paper is on language program management as development of its human resources of students, faculty, and administration. In what follows, language program resources are described as a set of interlocking decision-areas, and then the discussion turns to resource development in each of the three categories of students, faculty, and administration.

The Interlocking Nature of Program Resources and Decisions

It is an axiom of program administration that all aspects of the structure and functioning of any educational program are interrelated. Hence, any decision made about the design or development of the resources of a language program in one area will affect and be affected by the choices made in other areas. To take a concrete example of the interlocking nature of programmatic decisions: The number of students in an educational program, especially in the case of a self-supporting unit, affects and is affected by the structure and decisions in several other areas, as illustrated in Figure 1.

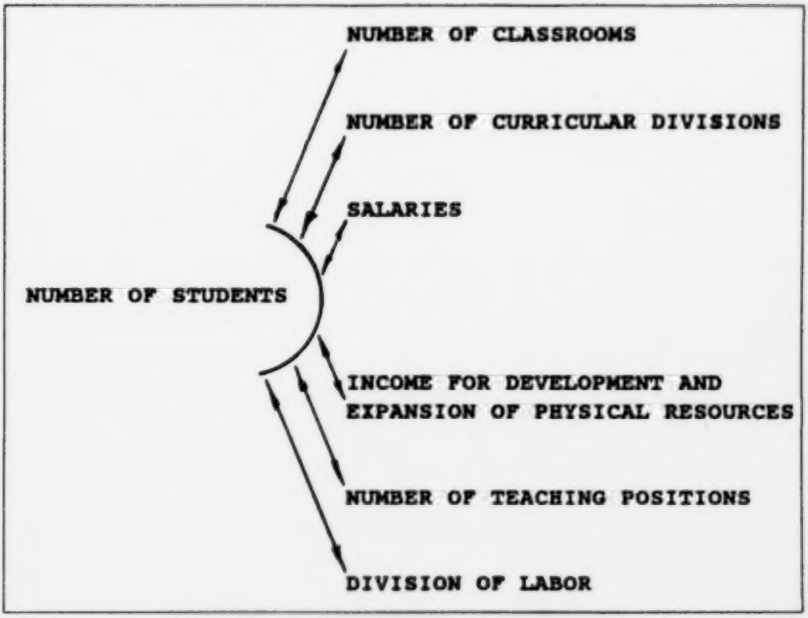

Figure 1. **Relationship of Enrolment to Other Program Features**

As Figure 1 is intended to illustrate, increasing enrolment projects to an increasing number of classrooms. On the other hand, a limited amount of space may restrict the possibilities for increasing enrolment. The number of curricular divisions or levels possible in a program is directly related to the size of enrolment. For example, if an average class size of 30-35 is desired, then a regular average enrolment of about 200 students is required to support six grade levels or proficiency levels (e.g., Beginner, High Beginner, Intermediate, High Intermediate, Advanced, High Advanced) on a continuing basis. With regular enrolment of 600 students, three sections of 30-35 students are possible at each of six proficiency levels (e.g., Beginner 1, Beginner 2, Beginner 3; Intermediate 1, Intermediate 2, Intermediate 3; Advanced 1, Advanced 2, Advanced 3).

Larger enrolments, in the hundreds or thousands, support larger financial outlays for salaries and provide income for development of the physical resources of the program to improve its quality and to expand its services to a wider student audience. These larger expenditures are expected, then, to result in large

enrolments. However, there is a sort of "vicious cycle" here, in that if the program is to remain financially sound, these larger expenditures must continue to be supported by large enrolments.

In addition, there is a close relationship between the number of teaching positions and the number of students enrolled or projected to be enrolled in the program. By the same token, if the faculty is large, then enrolment needs to be sustained at a current high level or increased to avoid position cuts. Regarding the division of labor, as a program grows--that is, as the number of students and teachers increases--there is the potential for, and the need for, more non-teaching staff. New positions intermediate between the program director and other staff positions may be created. These may include positions intermediate between the director and the instructors (e.g., a faculty supervisor or curriculum coordinator); between the director and the other administrative staff (e.g., an assistant or associate director); or between the director and the students (e.g., a student adviser or student services coordinator).

If, on the other hand, a program shrinks, the division of labor will have to shift. As often happens in a situation of diminishing enrolments and decreasing income, some staff members may suddenly need to spend a great deal of time promoting the program and recruiting students, or lobbying with a higher authority to justify the continued existence of the language program. Under these conditions, the program staff will eventually have to be cut back to a smaller number of hierarchical divisions, job categories, and individual positions.

As this illustration shows, any effort at language program development, whether starting a program from scratch or developing an already existing program, requires a comprehensive and unified view of the program as a whole, and how the conditions in each resource area affect and are affected by every other resource area. As this illustration also shows, program design must be adaptable and responsive to changing conditions throughout the entire system of interlocking decisions.

Student Development

In projecting or developing the student resource area of the language program, four basic considerations are necessary. (For more detailed discussion and additional considerations, see Middlebrook, 1991.) These are illustrated in Figure 2.

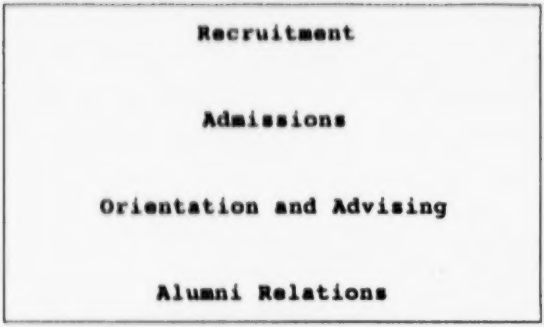

Figure 2. Considerations in Student Services

Recruitment

The first and most essential consideration in the area of students is to make sure that there are any, and that their numbers are sufficient to support the program's staff and basic operating expenses. In some cases, this will mean recruitment of students via direct mail or other types of promotional campaign. (See Jenks, 1991, for detailed discussion of promotional materials.) Recruitment efforts should attempt to ensure that the needs and interests of the students who are recruited will be a good match for the type of instruction and services to be provided by the language program. A critical issue in the recruitment area is therefore whether the nature of the program is honestly represented by all its agents and in all its publications, such as brochures, and whether it is promoted by ethical means.

Admissions

It is essential for admissions criteria to be well-articulated and consistent, for ethical reasons and for the practical reason of ensuring that students who are admitted will end up actually enrolling and staying in the program. The admissions criteria and decisions should reflect the purposes and goals of the language program and, if relevant, the larger institution in which it is housed. Thus, in the admissions area, we want to ensure that the evaluation of students' credentials is thorough and accurate, and that admission is based on a mutual compatibility between the applicant and the program.

Orientation and Advising

When a student arrives in the language program, a comprehensive academic and social orientation should be provided to get each individual off to a good start and to head off problems that might arise later on. This initial orientation can include the elements shown in Figure 3.

(1) introduction of program staff, their credentials and achievements;
(2) the program philosophy, curriculum and teaching methods, and how these may differ from other programs;
(3) the structure of the program in terms of proficiency groupings, and the procedures for testing, placement, and promotion;
(4) the expected results for students who apply themselves diligently to study;
(5) other areas of information representing commonly asked questions;
(6) open question and answer period;
(7) open or structured social activity.

Figure 3. Components of Student Orientation

Such an orientation has at least five different functions. First, it helps to clarify the nature of the program and to provide other kinds of necessary or useful information, thereby heading off questions later on. Second, it is a kind of indoctrination which attempts to obtain the student's commitment to the values and purposes of the program. Third, the orientation helps to direct student behavior by projecting a target and a goal for the student to try to achieve. Fourth, it is a kind of pep-talk to motivate incoming students to achieve those goals. And fifth, it provides a social experience to get together with other students and with program staff. In short, the good orientation informs, commits, directs, motivates, and integrates the new student.

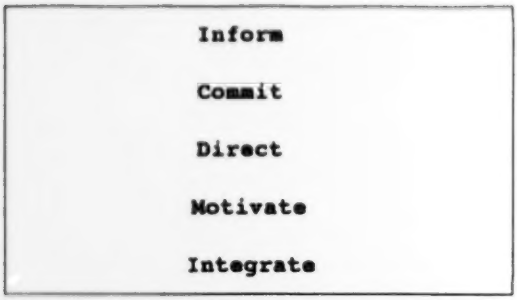

Figure 4. Purposes of Student Orientation

The student orientation can be coupled with an advising system which provides ongoing assistance to students in their academic program and with a social organization which provides extracurricular activities for students and staff. This may be a social committee that includes staff and student members, or it could be a special assignment for an administrative staff member. Either way, the social structure of the program is an integral part of its functioning and of the satisfaction of the students and the staff. It is therefore well worth the investment required to give it attention and nurturing.

Alumni Relations

After students leave the program, it can be of value to continue to maintain contact with them through a network of alumni. These alumni can provide useful information and may also assist in promotion and recruitment for the program, on a formal or an informal basis. To maintain contact, an alumni newsletter might be developed and disseminated to students after they leave the program. The program can maintain regular contact with alumni to request news for the newsletter, as well as to conduct follow-up surveys on the value of the instruction received in the language program and the ways that it might be improved to meet the real-life needs of its current and future students.

Faculty Development

The faculty is the most important asset of any educational enterprise because it has the most direct impact on its clientele, the students, and on the reputation of the program outside its home department or institution. Moreover, the nature of the faculty provides the program with a continuous and distinctive core set of values, and a unique character that attracts students and prestige, which will in turn reflect back on the students and on the administration. Good faculty are central to this cumulative process of building prestige, which continues to attract favorable attention to the program and so also attracts high-quality students, faculty, and other staff members. Accordingly, faculty development should be a primary concern of every program administrator.

Faculty development begins with a conception of the program as a whole and how the faculty structure will fit into the network of interlocking program components as the language program is being designed. The first step in structuring a faculty is therefore the determination of staffing needs, both immediate and long-range. This determination takes place before any faculty members are hired and again every time a new position opens up. Staffing needs change over time, depending on the number and the character of the students enrolled and according to the interests and strengths of those who have already been hired. Faculty positions may therefore change in nature or in number as a response to changing characteristics of the student body and of the faculty as a whole.

In making faculty hiring decisions, it is important to try to match faculty orientation not only to the philosophy and curricular structure of the program, but also to the interests and needs of the students. At the same time, the structure and characteristics of a program should be able to accommodate the differing approaches and interests of individual teachers. The faculty should in fact be consciously structured, both at the outset when a program is first designed and later in the life of a program when new positions are added or faculty members replaced, to incorporate a measure of diversity in teacher characteristics. A degree of heterogeneity in faculty characteristics ensures administrative flexibility to meet the generally unpredictable and fluctuating needs of the student body. Planned diversity within the teaching faculty provides the program with a wide array of internally generated resources for the growth and development of the program as a whole as well as for the individuals who work together on the faculty and who serve as resources for each other.

Diversity can be achieved by structuring the faculty to include a balance of types of positions. Inclusion of some part-time or teaching assistant positions allows for administrative flexibility in scheduling and class organization. At the same time, a core of experienced full-time professionals is desirable in most situations, since these teachers provide for program continuity, stability and progressive development and improvement of the curriculum and operations. A balance of experienced and new teachers ensures continuing input of fresh ideas and maintenance of faculty enthusiasm.

Once the faculty has been organized, the continuing success of a program is dependent on long-range developmental aims. From the administrative perspective, development means innovation and growth, and a continual evolution of the organization in a certain direction according to a vision of its potential and how it can be realized. From the faculty perspective, development means growing and evolving as a professional in the field. In the ideal case, personal goals develop in parallel to the goals of the organization. Hence, the management of faculty resources in a language program should be tied to a professional development plan which encourages individuals to further the goals of the organization through their own professional expansion or improvement. In such a system, motivation derives quite naturally from explicit opportunities for professional growth.

As part of the ongoing professional development of faculty competence, inservice and continuing education opportunities of many different types can be made available to teachers. Any kind of professional activity, whether engaged in by the faculty as individuals or as a group, should be encouraged through incentives such as release time or other types of allowances and incentives, including raises and promotions. For as faculty members increase their status and mature professionally, so does the program in which they work. Moreover, faculty members who are benefitting professionally from association with a program gain in loyalty and job satisfaction and are likely to maintain a high level of productivity throughout their careers. In contrast, those who do not grow and change in their jobs become bored, frustrated and dissatisfied, often remarking that they suffer from "burnout". If the ultimate aim is to spark enrolments and fire up students, a burned out teacher is bound to have a disappointing performance.

Professional development opportunities may involve teachers in outside activities such as conference attendance or continuing education courses, or may draw on the resources of the program and its internal needs. For example, after-class workshop activities can be instituted by an administrator or teacher based on case studies, role-play or problem-solving activities built around typical classroom

situations which faculty members are encountering and which are the source of stress or are of particular interest to them. It is also advantageous to involve faculty members in projects aimed at external promotion or improvement of non-teaching aspects of the program. For example, a faculty committee might oversee design and implementation of a conversation partners program; an individual faculty member might serve on a school-wide committee that advises on student services in all units; another faculty member might help disseminate information about the program to potential students. In this way, faculty members, while experimenting with new job tasks, come to have a personal interest in the welfare of the program and a stake in its continued existence.

Administrative Development

In a well-known article, Katz (1974) emphasizes the need for three different skills in effective administration. Katz's definitions of the three types of skill are given in Figure 5.

> Technical skill: An understanding of, and proficiency in, a specific kind of activity, particularly one involving methods, processes, procedures, or techniques.
> Human skill: Ability to work effectively as a group member and to build cooperative effort within the team he/she leads.
> Conceptual skill: The ability to see the enterprise as a whole, including recognizing how the various functions of the organization depend on one another and how changes in any one part affect all the others and extending to visualizing the relationship of the organization to the entire field, the community, and to political, social and economic forces.

Figure 5. **The Skills of Effective Administration (Katz, 1974)**

Katz's 3-skill model can be applied to ESL/ELT administration, as has been done in Figure 6a-c (adapted from Pennington, 1985).

- English language (phonology, grammar, morphology, pragmatics)
- Teaching (approaches, methods, techniques)
- Educational materials (evaluation, adaptation, development)
- Audiovisual equipment (operation, uses)
- Curriculum design
- Testing and placement
- Immigration matters
- Personnel (hiring, training, evaluation of faculty and office staff, legal issues)
- Finances (budgeting, accounting)
- Administrative writing (memos, reports, contracts grants, promotional literature)
- Recordkeeping systems
- Computer skills

Figure 6a. Technical Skill in the ESL Context

- Presentations (arousing and sustaining interest)
- Training sessions (motivating staff involvement)
- Meetings (expressing ideas clearly, listening skillfully; interacting successfully as leader AND group member)
- Giving individual counsel and feedback (asking open-ended questions, ensuring mutual understanding, giving meaningful advice)
- Curriculum development and implementation (negotiating with faculty and students as a group and as individuals)
- Handling complaints and criticisms (dealing tactfully and locally with problems)
- Making changes (preparing for change by disseminating information and practicing persuasion and negotiation)
- Keeping morale high (making staff members feel appreciated)

Figure 6b. Human Skill in the ESL Context

- Needs analysis
- Promotion and marketing
- Management (time, resources)
- Long-term and short-term planning (fiscal resources, human resources, strategic directions)
- Goal-setting and plans for achieving goals
- Development of proposals (grants, contracts, procurements)
- Staffing (hiring and organizing)
- Evaluation (staff, curriculum, other program aspects)

Figure 6c. Conceptual Skill in the ESL Context

Technical skill is most important at lower levels of ESL/ELT administration (e.g., administrative assistant), while conceptual skill is most essential at higher levels (e.g., program director or department chair). Human skill is required at every level, including mid-level positions such as faculty supervisor or academic coordinator. The ESL/ELT administrator with poor human skill is fighting an uphill battle with a group of teachers, whose orientation is first and foremost to communication and interaction with other people. The same can be said of the director who cuts corners in time management by not interacting with staff, putting paperwork before "peoplework."

Fox (1991) confirms the relative unimportance for success as an ESL/ELT program director of technical skills such as record-keeping, as compared to human skills such as team-building and conceptual skills such as the ability to develop a "vision" of where the program is headed. However, the technical skills that directly relate to producing and handling income--such as budgeting and program promotion--may be absolutely essential in cases where programs must operate in the black with no external funding, subsidies, or guaranteed enrolments. Moreover, the program director without an ESL/ELT background or degree sometimes has a credibility problem with teachers that can interfere with his/her effectiveness. Being technically skilled in ESL/ELT methods and materials can gain the teachers' respect and hence their cooperation in program affairs.

Since very few with an ESL/ELT background have any training in administration and since it is doubtful whether one person could be equally strong in all of these skill areas, the administration of a language program can profitably be divided among individuals with complementary skills. An administrative team structure would seem to be a realistic alternative to one person trying to do it all. Another option is to provide special training for teachers to assume some administrative responsibilities. Most likely, this training would have to come from outside the language program itself, perhaps through coursework in management or educational administration. A third option is an on-site administrative practicum or apprenticeship (Pennington, 1985). In the administrative practicum or apprenticeship, a promising individual works closely with a seasoned administrator to "learn the ropes" of program administration in action. Such an apprenticeship is a way to build administrative skills through practical experience and to learn from mistakes in a context where the results of those mistakes would not be devastating to the program.

Just as faculty members should be continually renewing themselves and expanding their competencies, so should administrators be involved in professional development. My research (Pennington, 1991) suggests that ESL/ELT program directors could benefit from supplementary coursework in management practices, such as: accounting, promotion and recruitment, program planning and organization, public relations, negotiation, motivation, and other personnel concerns. A variety of training and "hands-on" experiences can strengthen and diversify the preparation of ESL/ELT administrators, providing them with the balance of educational and management skills required for their unique and demanding jobs.

Conclusion

Looking beyond issues of curriculum per se, the management of an English language program can usefully be conceptualized in terms of resources, both physical and human, and how those resources are developed. From this perspective, the basic objectives in language program development are to maximize the quality of all resources and to optimize their functioning. Directions for development of a language program, and priorities for change and growth, will therefore be based on a consideration of how changes in one resource area can help to improve the quality and functioning of other program resources. The ultimate goal then becomes one of developing resources, especially, the people in the organization--the students, the faculty, and the administration--towards ever greater realization of their potential.

Acknowledgement

This paper, parts of which are adapted from Pennington (1989), is an abbreviated and revised version of a paper delivered under the title of "Organizing an effective language program" under the auspices of Ming Chuan College, Taipei, Taiwan, September 1991.

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TEACHERS AS TRAINERS

DAVID HAYES

Abstract

Much has been said recently about the need to provide continuing opportunities for in-service professional development for teachers. This paper discusses experience gained on Thailand's Project for the Improvement of Secondary English Teaching (PISET) in which practising teachers assist their colleagues in such development via in-service courses at provincial English Resource and Instruction Centres (ERICs). Using data gathered from a questionnaire completed by trainers in north-east Thailand, the paper examines the concept of 'trainers' in this situation. It analyses the skills ERIC personal themselves feel they need in order to act successfully as collaborative trainers, those which they believe they already possess and those which they require training in. It compares this with the subjective views of an outside adviser on the skills the trainers need to implement an INSET programme. How the trainer-training is given by the adviser and Thai supervisors for English is then explored. Finally, the paper attempts to establish a framework for trainer-training programmes for INSET in similar circumstances.

Introduction

Kerr [cited in Britten, 1985: 237] has remarked that teacher-trainers have often tended to emerge "rather like village elders, on the basis of personal qualities or seniority, but without other qualifications". This paper discusses a more structured approach to the training of teacher-trainers. It does not examine how the teacher-trainers might be selected initially. In the context in which I am working the identification of trainers was accomplished by schools prior to my involvement in the project. It is likely, however, that all were selected on the basis of being "good teachers" of English. While it is true from my classroom observations that they are all, indeed, good teachers, my basic assumption has been that being a good teacher does not necessarily mean that one is a good trainer. Knowing how to do something, and to do it well, is not the same as being able to communicate that knowledge effectively to other teachers such that the latter are given the skills to reflect upon and perhaps to change their own classroom behaviour. In what follows I shall be discussing elements of a trainer development programme that aims to help

trainers to do just this, but first I would like to review the background to the project and that of the trainers.

The Project for the Improvement of Secondary English Teaching (PISET)

PISET is a Thai government project assisted by the British government via the British Council. It has 4 main components:

1. the establishment of a nationwide network of 80 English Resource and Instruction Centres (ERICs);

2. in-service teacher-training at these ERICs, together with associated trainer-training;

3. syllabus development;

4. examination development.

Of these I only wish to discuss the first two, focussing on trainer development.

PISET followed on from an earlier in-service teacher-training project which had as its general aim the development and improvement of ELT in Thailand. It is, therefore, building on a tradition of INSET but systematizing it and extending it to all areas of the country. Unlike its predecessor, the training element of PISET operates out of fixed English Resource and Instruction Centres (ERICs) based in schools in every province. These ERICs have been opened in phases since 1985 though 1991 saw accelerated development with 42 centres opening in that year. My own area of concern is with the 17 ERICs of I-San, as north-east Thailand is known.

The ERICs, whose location is decided by all secondary school directors in a particular province, are staffed by a manager and at least 2 or 3 assistants - all selected from the teaching cadre of the host school. As these staff may not be given any reduction in their usual teaching load in recompense for their extra training duties, I (and my colleagues responsible for other areas of the country) encourage the involvement of as many of the school's English teachers as possible in the work of the ERIC.

Though there is a central PISET authority based in Bangkok to which individual ERICs report, they have a large measure of autonomy, especially in terms of course organisation, timing and content. Central PISET authorities

contribute a small amount of funding but host schools usually have to allot further amounts to enable the centres to run effectively. Autonomy does not mean isolation, however, and links are actively encouraged between ERICs in the various regions to facilitate the sharing of ideas and materials as well as to provide general support. At a more formal level seminars are run twice a year for the 17 ERICs in the region when it is possible to promote these links as well as to engage in direct trainer development.

Prior to being selected as ERIC trainers, teachers may have had no other experience as trainers. Those that do have experience will be used to a tradition of lecture-based, transmission type training. This mode of training has been largely ineffective in altering teacher behaviour in the past, in encouraging a move away from grammar-translation as the accepted ELT methodology to a more student-centred communicative approach. (Such a move has been given official sanction and support in the recent introduction of a problem-solving, process approach to the curriculum by the Ministry of Education.) To promote this change in teaching behaviour, therefore, a new training methodology is being encouraged. This is one that is task-based and inductive and seeks to engage teachers in their own professional development. (It seems to be obvious that this latter factor is a natural prerequisite to any change but it is surprising how many programmes have ignored it in the past.)

Having practising teachers as trainers is also important to the success of this approach. It overcomes teachers' worries about the *content* of the training course, as trainers are able, in effect, to say to other teachers "I have tried this for myself and it works". However, it would be fair to say that those trainers with experience and those without are starting from more or less a common base as far as familiarity with a task-based, inductive training *methodology* is concerned as I believe the study conducted shows. I would now like to turn to an examination of the study itself.

The study: Questionnaire and Procedures

As part of the continuing trainer-development programme a questionnaire was sent to the 17 ERICs of I-San. It was completed by 22 trainers from these 17 centres. The questionnaire (copy at Appendix One) was in 3 sections, the first having to be completed before looking at the second, the second before looking at the third. The first section asked trainers to describe in their own words what they saw as the most important parts of their duties as ERIC managers or assistants, to give reasons why they thought these things were important and to say what they

hoped to achieve by doing them. The second listed 4 key areas of the ERIC's work (as accepted by PISET and advisers), asked trainers to list the skills/ knowledge they thought they needed to enable them to carry out these 4 areas of work successfully and then asked them to assess the degree of confidence that they had in their own existing abilities/knowledge in these respects. The third section provided my own list of skills/content knowledge which I considered important in carrying out 7 broad areas of ERIC work, asked trainers to say whether they felt they needed further training in them and then to rank those they selected in order of importance.

I should emphasize that the study was small-scale and conducted for practical, planning purposes. It does not pretend to any rigorous, scientific basis.

The Study: Questionnaire Results

Section 1

In this section respondents were asked to discuss the most important parts of their work as they saw them, to explain why they thought they were important and what they hoped to achieve by doing them. (Obviously, respondents may have mentioned more than one thing.)

16 respondents said, in various ways, that it was most important for them

to prepare and run training courses for teachers,

Reasons cited for this centred on the need to acquaint teachers with communicative teaching methodology, e.g.

> Teaching English in a communicative way is hard for Thai teachers so they need to be trained how to teach effectively. Some teachers still use Talk and Chalk teaching technique that makes the students bored with their teaching.

Interestingly, one respondent commented on the outreach or 'cascade' effect of training.

> It is very important ..... to give trainees some techniques and suitable activities. Encourage them to use more English in class. The trainees will take them back to their schools and students. The most important thing is that they will disseminate to their colleagues.

12 respondents commented, variously, on the importance of

> running the ERIC and providing activities in the centre for students and teachers in the school and the province.

Reasons for this mentioned both the needs of students and teachers, e.g.

> [My duty is to make the ERIC] a more interesting and useful resource to both teachers & students in the ERIC school and other schools.

> Each day students come to read and do activities in the room, most of them enjoy coming in whenever they have time. I think this is the best way to give students a chance to study and learn by themselves besides in the classroom.

9 respondents mentioned the need

> to share knowledge of teaching techniques with colleagues and other English teachers.

This was because, e.g.

> teachers need students to use English well but they don't know how to lead the students to their aims ..... If I can help them to do the better things it will be useful. The teachers will be outstanding teachers.

6 respondents thought it important

> to advise teachers about their teaching.

Reasons for this were very general, e.g.:

> They also need some more advice to make them feel more comfortable to teach English.

3 respondents commented on the importance of

> providing opportunities for students to practise/use English in the ERIC

as, e.g.:

Students don't have any opportunity to use English except in classrooms.

There was a range of other comments from single respondents. One said s/he believed in the importance of

providing a model for other teachers.

Again, only one respondent mentioned the importance of

providing follow-up to courses

Respondents tended to discuss what they hoped to achieve by carrying out these activities in global terms rather than for individual activities. Most commented on the goal of improving English language teaching and learning in their areas. Some sample 'hopes':

> I feel quite confident that those courses and activities will help teachers and students improve their English

> I hope to see the English teachers all over my province adopt the new techniques to use in their classrooms. Students [will] have more opportunities to use the language than before.

Section 2

In this section 4 key areas of ERIC work were presented. Trainers were asked to list the skills/knowledge they thought they needed to enable them to carry out these areas of work successfully and to assess the degree of confidence that they had in their own existing abilities/knowledge in these respects. Two examples were given for each of the 4 areas. These are listed as the first two points in each table.

Responses are summarised in the following 4 tables. For "Degree of Confidence", VC = Very Confident, QC = Quite Confident, NVC = Not Very Confident, NC = No Confidence.

(a) Run the ERIC

No. of Respondents	Skill/Knowledge	Degree of Confidence			
		VC	QC	SWC	NC
6	keeping records of materials		2	4	
8	providing interesting activities for students to do	1	4	3	
12	providing teaching materials/aids etc. for teachers	2	7	3	
8	providing learning materials/games for students	3	5		
3	organising activities for teachers and students in the ERIC (e.g. English camp)		3		
2	providing exam paper practice			2	
2	helping teachers adapt materials for their classes			2	
2	promoting confidence in teachers to use English in their classes			2	
4	decorating the room, setting up displays etc.	1	3		
7	co-operating with colleagues/involving other teachers in ERIC work	1	4	2	
2	organising materials	1	1		
1	supervising students using the centre			1	
1	managing the ERIC office successfully			1	
2	producing an ERIC newsletter	1	1		
1	sharing ideas with other ERICs		1		
2	promoting the centre		1	1	

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(b) Plan training courses for teachers

No. of Respondents	Skill/Knowledge	Degree of Confidence			
		VC	QC	SVC	NC
12	writing effective timetables	1	8	3	
9	conducting analysis of teachers' needs	1	6	2	
2	persuading teachers to join in the training courses (publicity)		2		
1	investigating teachers' backgrounds		1		
5	finding appropriate resource persons/ allocating staff resources effectively		5		
1	planning/working as a team			1	
1	deciding on workshop aims and objectives		1		
1	administering the course				1
2	managing the course budget		2		
4	writing course evaluation forms/questionnaires	1	3		
1	deciding on follow-up activities to ensure change in teachers' teaching behaviour			1	

(c) Adapting/writing training materials for courses

No. of Respondents	Skill/Knowledge	Degree of Confidence			
		VC	QC	SVC	NC
13	knowing about effective teaching techniques	2	3	8	
14	writing effective training tasks	1	4	8	1
1	preparing warm-up activities		1		
2	selecting input for training tasks	1	1		
2	choosing appropriate forms of output for training tasks	1	1		
2	writing awareness-raising tasks	1	1		
4	writing instructions for tasks		1	3	
1	producing materials for testing				1
3	writing effective evaluation tasks (of techniques)		1	2	
2	choosing course content		1	1	
1	knowing about useful resource books			1	
2	knowing about teaching and learning objectives (based on the new curriculum)	2			
1	knowing about students' abilities at each level (for appropriacy of materials)		1		
1	adapting textbooks		1		

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(d) Advising teachers about their classroom teaching

No. of Respondents	Skill/Knowledge	Degree of Confidence			
		NC	QC	MVC	VC
8	giving constructive advice	1	2	5	
7	knowing what is possible in the teacher's situation	1		6	
8	knowing about students' background and needs		5	3	
2	adapting teaching techniques for students of different levels		1	1	
7	knowing a lot about teaching techniques	1	3	3	
1	knowing about teachers' roles in the classroom		1		
5	knowing how to manage large classes		2	3	
5	knowing about classroom language			5	
1	knowing about the curriculum and the syllabus		1		
1	demonstrating techniques		1		
1	advising on lesson planning			1	
1	using reinforcement and reprimand		1		
1	being able to 'convince' teachers	1			
1	knowing the nature of studying a foreign language			1	

Section 3

In this section the respondents were asked to check which of a list of given skills or content knowledge they would like to have further training in. They were also asked to rank these in order of importance to them.

Responses are presented in the tables below.

Skill/Knowledge	Need to have more/have more training in	
	YES	NO
1. Running the resource centre		
- providing activities for students	18	3
- organising teaching material	20	1
- organising student learning materials	19	2
- producing teaching material	20	1
- producing student learning material	20	1
2. Providing techniques for teachers		
- listening	19	3
- speaking	18	4
- reading	18	4
- writing	18	4
- grammar	19	3
- vocabulary	19	3
- use of visual aids	19	3
- classroom management	17	5
- classroom language	14	8
3. Planning courses for teachers		
- pre-course administration	22	
- carrying out needs/wants analysis	22	
- writing timetables	18	4
4. Writing/adapting training materials for courses		
- deciding workshop aims/objectives	21	1
- selecting content	21	1
- formulating teaching-learning points/principles about teaching	22	
- making awareness-raising tasks	21	1
- deciding on appropriate forms of input	22	
- writing tasks for teachers to analyse input	22	
- devising ways of ensuring teachers understand principles	21	1
- evaluating teachers' work/output in training workshops	21	1
- writing instructions for other trainers to use training notes	22	

5.	**Running workshops for teachers (implementational skills)**		
	- introducing a topic:		
	a) stimulating teachers' interest	19	3
	b) linking topic to teachers' personal experience	20	2
	- eliciting information/opinions from teachers	16	6
	- stimulating/handling group discussion		
	a) questioning	18	4
	b) reformulating teachers' contributions	19	3
	c) linking contributions	18	4
	d) distinguishing relevant from irrelevant contributions	19	3
	e) drawing together views/opinions/ facts	18	4
	f) focussing discussion	19	3
	g) drawing out points of general relevance	19	3
	h) summarising contributions	18	4
	- presenting material/problems to teachers as input	19	3
	- setting tasks to do with the input	20	2
	- organising class/group/pair work (class = all teachers on the course)	16	6
	- monitoring class/group/pair work		
	a) making sure teachers are doing the right thing according to the task	16	6
	b) guiding & assisting teachers	16	6
	- answering (awkward/difficult) questions	15	7
	- conducting feedback = same skills as 'stimulating/handling group discussion' plus:		
	a) leading teachers to conclusions	17	5
	b) making conclusions explicit	19	3
	- evaluating outcome of tasks		
	a) encouraging self-analysis	20	2
	b) giving constructive advice	19	3
	c) valuing work done	19	3

6.	Follow-up to courses		
	- setting objectives for follow-up work	19	3
	- devising tasks/projects for teachers to carry out in schools	20	2
	- advising on/evaluating follow-up work done by teachers	21	1
	- methods of continuing self-development for teachers in school	22	
7.	Observing/counselling teachers in their own classes		
	- conducting pre-observation conferencing	20	2
	- giving support to teachers	19	3
	- giving constructive advice	19	3
	- involving the teacher in self-assessment	20	2

Only 17 of the respondents supplied a complete ranking of the areas they wanted to receive further training in. 2 supplied a partial ranking and 3 no ranking at all.

The rankings are given below

1.)	3	2	5	4	1	4	2	4	4	1	5	4	5	7	5	2	1	2	1
2.)	4	3	3	1	2	5	4	5	5	2	4	3	2	6	4	1	4	4	2
3.)	2	4	4	5	3	2	5	6	2	3	6	2	3	5	2	4	7	3	4
4.)	5	5	6	2	4	3	1	2	6	4	7	1	4	1	1	3	6		7
5.)	1	1	7	3	5	1	3	7	1	5	5	5	1	3	3	5	5		
6.)	6	7	2	6	6	6	6	3	3	6	2	6	6	4	6	6	3		
7.)	7	6	1	7	7	7	7	1	7	7	1	7	7	2	7	7	2		

As can be seen it is difficult to discern clear patterns in the ranking. "Writing/adapting training materials for courses" was ranked first by 5 respondents and second by 6. "Running workshops for teachers" was ranked first by 4 respondents and second by 3. "Providing techniques for teachers" was the first choice of 4 respondents, the second choice of 4 and the third choice of 4. At the other end of the scale "observing/counselling teachers in their own classes" was considered least important by 11 respondents and "follow-up to courses" was 2nd last in importance for 10 respondents.

Discussion of Questionnaire Results

From Section 1 it is clear that ERIC trainers see the provision of training courses for other teachers as the most important element of their duties. They appear to be genuinely concerned to upgrade the standards of teaching and learning of English in their respective provinces. Formal training courses alone, however, do not seem to be enough to enable this goal to be reached. There is a concern also for what might be expressed as "raising the profile of the English language" in schools in I-San: Hence the 12 respondents commenting on the importance of the ERIC as a centre which could provide activities for students and teachers, both at school and provincial levels.

Improving standards of teaching is, from my observation, often seen as the provision of 'new techniques' for teachers and this is supported by the 9 respondents who wished to share just such knowledge with other English teachers. It seems that if teachers are armed with a sufficient repertoire of techniques then the students will somehow or other automatically improve their English language competence. As one trainer commented:

> When the teachers of English get enough techniques and methodologies, I think they can do their task more confidently and successfully.

But what is "enough"?

It appears, then, that trainers are quite often 'techniques-driven' and this may perhaps be traced back to their previous training experiences where transmission modes of training aimed to transfer knowledge about 'up-to-date' teaching techniques, with insufficient emphasis on understanding of the principles on which those techniques were based. (I shall return to this point later.) In connection with this it is noteworthy that only one respondent mentioned follow-up to courses as being important, though elsewhere (in section 2b) another respondent commented on the lack of effectiveness of previous training courses in actually altering classroom teaching behaviour. It could be suggested that at present there is little concept of training as a developmental process, something that does not cease when a teacher leaves a training course but which carries on as the teacher tries to make sense of new ideas in the context of his/her own classroom.

As I would have expected from trainers who are themselves practising classroom teachers there was a welcome focus on the ultimate intended result of any training course - improved English language performance by students in schools. This was expressed in comments from those respondents who explicitly

mentioned the importance of providing opportunities for students to practise or use English in the ERIC itself and in the global comments of those who saw the overall aim of what they were doing as improving the levels of students' English.

To sum up, there was a general accord between the ERIC trainers' views of the important elements of their work and the 'official' view of the PISET authorities that (a) ERICs should run training courses for teachers and (b) they should provide resources for both teachers and students in order to improve the overall quality of teaching and learning English in their respective provinces. Respondents views on the important areas of their work also accorded with the 4 key areas that I had identified for Section 2, but which was not seen until Section 1 had been completed. Analysis of responses in this section reveals, generally, that though trainers are fully aware of their responsibilities in respect of the ERIC they are less able to identify or to articulate component skills or areas of knowledge necessary to enable them to fulfil these responsibilities. It is significant that the examples given for each sub-section were widely cited as necessary skills by respondents. Only in respect of sub-section (a) concerned with running the ERIC (and to a lesser extent (b) - see below) were there any significant contributions from a number of respondents; 12 citing the provision of materials for teachers, 8 the provision of materials for students and 7 the need to co-operate with colleagues. Few respondents were able to provide skills or areas of knowledge necessary either in sub-sections (b) planning training courses or (c) adapting/writing training materials. In sub-section (d), advising teachers about their classroom teaching, there were, however, 8 respondents who cited the need to know about the background and needs of the students and 7 the need to know a lot about teaching techniques. This last need reinforces earlier comments about trainers still being 'techniques-driven'.

In assessing the degrees of confidence which they felt they possessed in these skills or areas of knowledge, the majority of respondents were 'very confident' or 'quite confident' about their abilities in those areas cited by 6 or more respondents in sub-sections (a) and (b) except for the area of 'keeping records of materials' where 4 out of 6 respondents reported they were 'not very confident' about this. In sub-sections (c) and (d) the picture is somewhat different. Not only were the respondents generally unable to identify or to articulate necessary skills or areas of knowledge but they also lacked confidence in their existing abilities in those few areas they were able to identify as well as those given as examples. In sub-section (c), 8 out of 14 trainers reported that they were 'not very confident' about 'writing effective training tasks' while 1 had 'no confidence'; and 8 out of 13 similarly reported they were 'not very confident' in their knowledge of effective teaching techniques. This is somewhat surprising in view of my own observation of

their generally good teaching performance in class and the common criterion for selection as an ERIC trainer of being a 'good teacher'. In sub-section (d) 5 out of 8 respondents were 'not very confident' about their ability to give constructive advice to other teachers and 6 out of 7 about knowing what was possible in the teacher's situation. This may be due, of course, simply to unfamiliarity with observation of other teachers and, consequently, their teaching situations (this is referred to again below).

In Section 3 the 4 areas of Section 2 were further divided and the category of 'follow-up' added to make a total of 7. For these 7 areas lists of skills or areas of knowledge were provided which represented, in part, a view of the major skills or areas of knowledge needed for trainers to function effectively within the training system. These lists were the result of my observation of trainers in action within the system and of the system itself over the preceding academic year. Only in areas 1 and 2, 'running the resource centre' and 'providing techniques for teachers' was there any significant degree of overlap between my own views of skills and knowledge needed and those of the trainers as articulated in Section 2. I think this reflects not so much a lack of agreement between trainers and adviser as a lack of facility on the part of trainers in articulating or identifying the skills or areas of knowledge needed to enable them to fulfil their responsibilities. The perceptions of the trainers were not sufficiently well-formed at anything other than a general level - the level of Section 1 of the questionnaire.

When presented with my lists there was an overwhelming 'Yes' response to the question of whether or not respondents wished to receive further training in these areas. 11 of the respondents simply ticked 'yes' for everything and, as can be seen from the results, 'no' responses were very limited, only rising to more than a third of answers in the case of knowledge of classroom language in area 2, 'providing techniques for teachers'. Almost a third of respondents also felt no need for further training in organising or monitoring different work arrangements in area 5, 'running workshops for teachers'. From these responses I conclude that while ERIC trainers may not have the facility to identify or articulate their own needs vis-a-vis their roles in the ERIC system they have a desire to acquire any skills and knowledge that they believe may help them to fulfil their responsibilities adequately. If these skills and areas of knowledge are initially identified by an adviser rather than themselves it does not matter especially when, as I shall argue later, trainers' capacity for analysis of their own situation and needs is an important concern of the trainer development process.

As I have mentioned previously, respondents' rankings of the 7 areas in Section 3 is not particularly revealing except perhaps in the negative sense of what is considered least important. "Observing/counselling teachers in their own classes" was considered least important as a topic for further training by 11 of the respondents and "follow-up to course" was 2nd last in importance for 10 respondents. However, as I have argued above, this may be due to lack of familiarity with teacher observation and the idea of follow-up. It is certainly true from my experience that it is difficult for ERIC trainers to leave their schools to observe course participants teaching in their own schools (though there are notable exceptions to this). As an extension to lack of observation of teachers in their own schools, one might also say that the notion of follow-up to courses in teachers' schools has yet to take root. As we saw earlier, only 2 respondents even mentioned this area when completing Sections 1 and 2 of the questionnaire. If there is no opportunity to do or experience of doing these things at present it is hardly surprising that they are ranked low. Trainers seem to be focussed on more immediate concerns. The ranking of Section 3 areas shows "writing/adapting training materials", "running workshops" and "providing techniques" as the first choices for further training of 5, 4 and 4 respondents. "Running the resource centre" was also first for 4 respondents. Again, this ranking is hardly surprising given trainers views on the important areas of their work as reported in Section 1.

Having considered ERIC trainers' views on their work, the skills and knowledge they believe they need to carry out their duties and their expressed training needs based on my own list of skills and knowledge, I would now like to turn to consideration of the trainer development programme for the ERICs of north-east Thailand.

The Trainer Development Programme

It is probably clear by now that the areas of knowledge and skills detailed in Section 3 of the questionnaire represent the basis of what I consider to be a framework for trainer development in a situation where practising teachers are expected to develop training materials and to use them in teacher development of their peers. The situation in Thailand where trainers operate from fixed English Resource and Instruction Centres necessitates the inclusion of a section on 'running the resource centre' but this may not be appropriate elsewhere.

At present trainer development in I-San occurs at seminars for ERIC trainers at regional and area levels (the area consists of 3 educational regions). In addition visits to each ERIC to observe/assist with teacher training courses in

progress or to help plan and develop such courses are made on a regular basis. The seminars are run by myself and the 3 regional supervisors for English, part of whose duty it is to ensure that ERICs in their respective regions function effectively. Visits to ERICs are made by myself together with supervisors if their other duties allow.

Space will not permit a detailed presentation and discussion of the materials used at the regional and area seminars. However, I would like to review here the general patterns of and approaches to training. As I said earlier, our trainers are practising teachers who have had the role of trainer thrust upon them, as it were. Most of them will have had no previous experience of training. Our first task then is to examine the whole concept of what it means to "be a trainer" and to help new trainers overcome their apprehension at having to face their peers in training sessions in an unaccustomed role. We view video tapes of a teacher with a class of students and a trainer with a group of teachers as the basis for an examination of the differences between teaching adults and teaching children and to highlight some of the similarities in the things that teachers and trainers have to do - organise work arrangements, provide tasks, monitor, and so on. This leads to an exploration of the roles of a trainer in a training session. Again, as I have mentioned previously, having practising teachers as trainers helps to give immediate validity to the training proceedings. But, paradoxically, it may also give rise to misgivings in the minds of teachers, who have been used to training given as lectures by people of higher status, about the 'official acceptability' of what is being presented to them. This means that the question of the cultural expectations of the trainer's role need to be addressed and the collaborative nature of the training process made clear. Differences between the lecture-based transmission mode of training and a task-based, inductive training methodology are examined in these respects together with the likelihood of each effecting long-term changes in teaching behavior in schools.

From this exploration of what it means to be a trainer within the ERIC system we move to another major concern of new trainers, training materials themselves. Sample materials reflecting the task-based, inductive methodology which we wish to use are studied, first of all to see the nature of the workshop management roles they promote and then for their principles of construction. This latter element is very lengthy, encompassing as it does a detailed analysis of the various factors involved in materials writing - identification of objectives; selection of content; task-types; forms of input; forms of output; methods of drawing generalisable conclusions; methods of evaluating output; writing task instructions; writing trainers' notes; and so on. This is, obviously, an essential prelude to guided attempts by trainers to write their own materials to serve the needs of their own groups of teachers.

Work on what I have labelled the 'implementational skills' of running workshops for teachers is done to a limited extent via role-play at seminars (e.g. there is an 'answering awkward questions' exercise) but more by on-the-spot counselling during visits to ERICs. With courses actually in progress it is much easier for trainers to see the relevance of points made to their handling of workshops. It also affords the opportunity for team-training by myself and the ERIC staff which can give rise to useful post-session discussions.

Such things as course formats, planning timetables, methods of publicising courses, co-operation between ERICs, are done after initial confidence-boosting for neophyte trainers has been accomplished by such activities as described previously. Also in the later stages are those areas which questionnaire respondents have ranked as being of lesser importance to them - observation & counselling of other teachers and follow-up to courses, the former being a part of the latter to some extent. I hope in the future to show the value of these to our trainers, building on the as yet not clearly defined sense of unease that many of them feel about the efficacy of training courses in isolation. I shall hope to show by the example of our own seminars and follow-up visits to ERICs the importance of the concept of training as a developmental process rather than isolated events.

In the situation in north-east Thailand I pay limited attention to the matter of class teaching techniques. My observation leads me to believe that the vast majority of ERIC trainers have a more than adequate repertoire of techniques at their disposal. I also wish to encourage them to move away from the belief that more techniques equals better teaching and for them to instill confidence in teachers' use of a more limited range of core techniques properly deployed as a sounder basis for student learning than a gimmicky new technique every day approach. This is not to say that the question of core teaching techniques is neglected, far from it. They are often discussed during visits to ERICs and, for example, at a recent national ERIC seminar two and a half out of four weeks were devoted to just such issues. Model training materials for analysis also incorporate techniques which are thought to be useful. More importantly, I think, the training methodology aims to develop trainers' critical faculties such that they are then able to use resource books provided as part of the project in a reasoned manner; selecting, adapting and rejecting from ideas used elsewhere to suit their own particular teaching environment.

Running the resource centre is also an area that has taken a back seat in trainer development so far. This is primarily because ERIC staff have shown themselves to be very proficient at setting up and running their centres. As ever there is always scope for development and perhaps in the future we will have an

opportunity to consider such topics as producing newsletters that other teachers will actually read and the idea of the centre as a learning *environment.*

Exactly what direction trainer development will take in the future will depend on the needs and wants of the ERIC trainers themselves in consultation with their regional supervisors. However, it is thought that a practical framework has been provided for our situation which gives useful foci for the programme.

I would like to conclude by presenting that training framework for consideration by others who may be working in similar situations. As such I should stress that it lays no claim to universality and should be treated as the working document that it is, always open to suggestions for improvement and extension.

A Framework for Trainer Development

1.	Being a trainer - teaching adults and teaching children - roles of teachers and trainers - training methodologies - training as a developmental process
2.	Running the resource centre - providing activities for students - organising teaching material - organising student learning materials - producing teaching material - producing student learning material - creating displays - producing newsletters - collaborating with colleagues
3.	Providing techniques for teachers - listening - speaking - reading - writing - grammar - vocabulary - use of visual aids - classroom management - classroom language
4.	Planning courses for teachers - pre-course administration - carrying out needs/wants analysis - writing timetables - organising staff resources - publicity
5.	Writing/adapting training materials for courses - deciding workshop aims/objectives - selecting content - formulating teaching-learning points/ principles about teaching - making awareness-raising tasks - writing tasks for teachers to analyse input - devising ways of ensuring teachers understand principles - evaluation teachers' work/output in training workshops - writing instructions for other trainers to use training notes

6. Running workshops for teachers (implementational skills)
   - introducing a topic:
     a) stimulating teachers' interest
     b) linking topic to teachers' personal experience
   - eliciting information/opinions from teachers
   - stimulating/handling group discussion
     a) questioning
     b) reformulating teachers' contributions
     c) linking contributions
     d) distinguishing relevant from irrelevant contributions
     e) drawing together views/opinions/facts
     f) focussing discussion
     g) drawing out points of general relevance
     h) summarising contributions
   - presenting material/problems to teachers as input
   - setting tasks to do with the input
   - organising class/group/pair work (class = all teachers on the course)
   - monitoring class/group/pair work
     a) making sure teachers are doing the right thing according to the task
     b) guiding & assisting teachers
   - answering (awkward/difficult) questions
   - conducting feedback = same skills as 'stimulating/ handling group discussion' plus:
     a) leading teachers to conclusions
     b) making conclusions explicit
   - evaluating outcome of tasks
     a) encouraging self-analysis
     b) giving constructive advice
     c) valuing work done

7. Follow-up to courses
   - setting objectives for follow-up work
   - devising tasks/projects for teachers to carry out in schools
   - advising on/evaluating follow-up work done by teachers
   - methods of continuing self-development for teachers in school

8. Observing/counselling teachers in their own classes
   - conducting pre-observation conferencing
   - giving support to teachers
   - giving constructive advice
   - involving the teacher in self- assessment

REFERENCE

*BRITTEN, D. [1985] "Teacher Training in ELT (Part 2)" in **Language Teaching**, July 1985:220-238.*

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Appendix One: Questionnaire

ERIC Trainers Questionnaire

As a basis for the remaining regional and area seminars I would be grateful if you could complete this questionnaire and return it to me as soon as possible. Thank you.

Please complete Section 1 before looking at Section 2.

Section 1

Please describe what you think are the most important parts of your duties as an ERIC manager or assistant. Why do you think it is important to do these things? What do you hope to achieve by doing them?

Please complete Section 2 before looking at Section 3.

Section 2

1] From your experience, what skills/knowledge do you think you need to do the following activities. Please list as many things as you feel are necessary to enable you to do them well.

a) **Run the ERIC**
(e.g. the ability to keep records of materials/provide interesting activities for students to do)

b) **Plan training courses for teachers**
(e.g. the ability to write effective timetables/conduct analysis of teachers' needs)

c) **Adapt/write training materials for courses**

(e.g. knowing about effective teaching techniques/the ability to write effective training tasks)

d) **Advise teachers about their classroom teaching**

(e.g. the ability to give constructive advice/knowing what is possible in the teacher's situation)

2] Now that you have a list of skills/knowledge you feel you need to do 1 a) - 1 d) effectively, please try to assess what degree of confidence you have in your existing abilities/knowledge in these respects. Against each item in your lists put **(VC)** if you feel **very confident** about your existing skill/knowledge; **(QC)** if you feel **quite confident; (NVC) not very confident;** or **(NC)** if you have **no confidence.**

8~

Section 3

Please look at these areas of ERIC work. For each area there is a list of skills/content knowledge. Which of these do you think you would like to know more about/have more training in?

Skill/Knowledge	Need to know more have more training in	
	YES	NO
1. **Running the resource centre** - providing activities for students - organising teaching material - organising student learning materials - producing teaching material - producing student learning material		
2. **Providing techniques for teachers** - listening - speaking - reading - writing - grammar - vocabulary - use of visual aids - classroom management - classroom language		
3. **Planning courses for teachers** - pre-course administration - carrying out needs/wants analysis - writing timetables		
4. **Writing/adapting training materials for courses** - deciding workshop aims/objectives - selecting content - formulating teaching-learning points/principles about teaching - making awareness-raising tasks - writing tasks for teachers to analyse input - devising ways of ensuring teachers understand principles - evaluation teachers' work/output in training workshops - writing instructions for other trainers to use training notes		

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5. Running workshops for teachers (implementational skills) - introducing a topic: a) stimulating teachers' interest b) linking topic to teachers' personal experience - eliciting information/opinions from teachers - stimulating/handling group discussion a) questioning b) reformulating teachers' contributions c) linking contributions d) distinguishing relevant from irrelevant contributions e) drawing together views/ opinions/facts f) focussing discussion g) drawing out points of general relevance h) summarising contributions - presenting material/problems to teachers as input setting tasks to do with the input - organising class/group/pair work (class = all teachers on the course) - monitoring class/group/pair work a) making sure teachers are doing the right thing according to the task b) guiding & assisting teachers - answering (awkward/difficult) questions - conducting feedback = same skills as 'stimulating/handling group discussion' plus: a) leading teachers to conclusions b) making conclusions explicit - evaluating outcome of tasks a) encouraging self-analysis b) giving constructive advice c) valuing work done		

6.	**Follow-up to courses** - setting objectives for follow-up work - devising tasks/projects for teachers to carry out in schools - advising on/evaluating follow-up work done by teachers - methods of continuing self-development for teachers in school		
7.	**Observing/counselling teachers in their own classes** - conducting pre-observation conferencing - giving support to teachers - giving constructive advice - involving the teacher in self-assessment		

Could you now please rank those things you said you needed to know more about/have more training in order of importance for you. Rank from (1) = most important downwards.

COPING WITH TEACHER RESISTANCE: INSIGHTS FROM INSET PROGRAMMES

V SARASWATHI

1. The Need for INSET Programmes in India:

The Indian ELT scene is full of paradoxes. Millions of Indian boys and girls study English as a compulsory second language in schools and colleges. The students graduating from elitist English medium schools emerge as near-native speakers of English, who could take examinations like TOEFL, or ELTS in their stride. On the other hand, there are a large number of school-leavers, who have pursued their education through regional language medium schools, and are unable to write a single grammatically correct sentence. Both these categories of students sit in the same class when they enrol for their degree courses. The English teacher faces a dilemma - he cannot please both.

The weak learners, though confused and discouraged, somehow manage to pass the examination, thanks to the heavy weightage allotted to content and memory. They master the art of camouflage and successfully manage to demonstrate a competence in English which they never possess. While the brighter learners enrol for coveted courses like Engineering, Medicine or Business Management, the weaker learners are left with no other option but to become teachers. This is facilitated by the fact that a teacher of English in the Indian school need not necessarily be a graduate in English language and literature. The weaker-learner-turned-teacher is now asked to do the impossible - to teach the English language, which he himself has not mastered. While referring to deteriorating standards of English, we mainly think of students. A closer analysis of the situation, however, reveals that the teacher's English has also started deteriorating. The trainers in India have a formidable task - in addition to developing the trainees' teaching skills, they also need to take care of their linguistic skills. INSET programmes have therefore become the urgent need of the day.

The above discussion, however, should not create the impression that ELT experts in India are unaware of this. In fact some Indians have distinguished themselves as the best speakers and writers of English. Further there is enough ELT expertise in India to enable her to seek indigenous solutions. The C.I.E.F.L. Hyderabad, for instance, has kept pace with current trends in ELT. Their project English 150, a remedial course for college entrants, is a case in point. The Tamil

Nadu Textbook Society has started implementing an innovative approach to Materials design, wherein a team of five people are appointed to design a textbook. An ELT expert, with a strong ELT background is chosen as the chairperson, to be assisted by four practising teachers with some ELT training.

These attempts at innovation, however, fail to yield the expected results for the simple reason that teachers are not prepared for change. There are no orientation programmes to familiarise them with the new approaches. Teachers with a few years of experience develop a sense of complacency and confidence. They feel that they have mastered the art of teaching and that there is nothing more for them to learn. They resist change as it shatters their sense of security. Often they fail to understand the rationale of suggested changes. They therefore reject innovations without making any effort to understand them. Their irrefutable argument is : "The method through which my teacher taught me English is good enough for my learners. If it has worked for me, why won't it work for my learners?"

2. The Challenge of Teacher Education in India.

The Challenge before teacher educators in India is two-fold. They have to convince teachers of the desirability and feasibility of change. They also have to improve the teachers' communication skills in English without hurting their ego.

Given the choice, teachers in India would prefer not to attend INSET Programmes. They regard it as a waste of time, an insult to their ego, and an infringement on their liberty. If they do attend INSET programmes, it is because they are forced to. The universities stipulate attendance at two INSET programmes - each of a month's duration - as a necessary requirement for increment and promotion. At the school level, result oriented administrators compel their teachers to attend such programmes. Like Blake's Schoolboy, they go unwillingly to School. This is further aggravated by the fact that INSET programmes are usually arranged outside class hours or over the weekend. While school teachers come for INSET programmes chafing with irritation and defiance, college teachers have a totally different perspective since they are sent 'on duty' during term days to attend the programme. It offers them an escape from the humdrum of the daily chore of teaching and the pleasure of returning to their student days.

On the first day of the training programme, the attitude writ large on the face of every teacher is: "What are you going to tell me that I don't know already?". The primary duty of every teacher-educator is to change this attitude. Even if he manages to convince them regarding the desirability of innovations, teachers still

assert categorically: "But this won't work in my classroom". This is the trump card which makes many a novice teacher educator shudder in despair.

The situation is made more complex when such defiance is coupled with an inability to make a proper assessment of one's self. Most teachers are not aware of the fact that their own English is of a very poor standard and that they provide very bad models for their own learners. Any direct suggestion that their English needs improvement, hurts their ego and they are unable to digest it. When INSET programmes continue to be optional there could be no better way of dissuading teachers from attending such programmes!

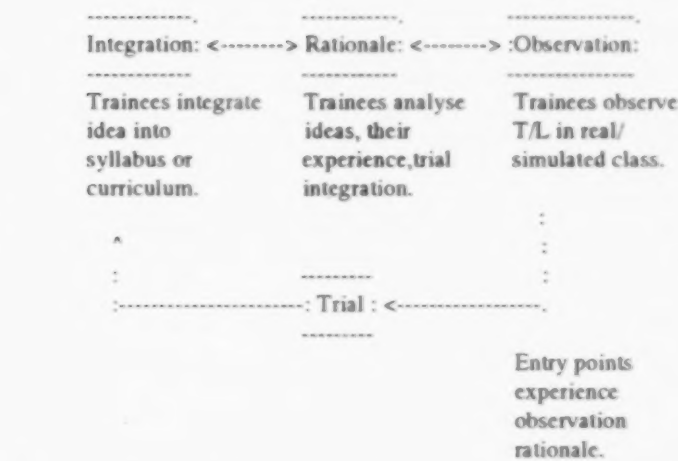
3. Meeting the Challenge

How does one meet the challenge of convincing teachers who refuse to be convinced? Primarily it requires a change in the attitude of the trainers themselves. A person-centered approach, as defined by Carl Rogers, may perhaps be the best answer. He says: "The central hypothesis of this approach can briefly be stated: It is that the individual has within him or herself vast resources for self-understanding, for altering his or her self-concept, attitudes and self-directed behaviour and that these resources can be tapped if only a definable climate of facilitative psychological attitudes can be provided" (Rogers 1980). In order to create such a climate, the trainer needs to develop the qualities of empathy, acceptance and authenticity. Empathy requires the capacity and willingness to understand someone else from his point of view. Acceptance implies readiness to hear the trainees without judging them. Authenticity is genuineness or absence of hypocrisy.

4. Towards a Model for INSET Programmes

In accordance with the humanistic principles of psychology, where the trainer becomes a facilitator, we prefer the notion of "Teacher Development" to "Teacher Training". Ian McGrath (1986 p.2) says, "Teacher Development is a life-long, autonomous process of learning and growth, by which as teachers we adapt to changes in and around us and enhance our awareness, knowledge and skills in personal, interpersonal and professional aspects of our lives". In other words, Teacher Development seeks to encourage personal growth or evolution and creates a favourable climate in which course participants feel free to talk about their own perceptions and feelings.

In designing our Teacher Development programmes we have drawn inspiration from the E-R-O-T-I model outlined by Tony O'Brien (1981 p.59)



The different features of the model are briefly summarised below:

Experience : Trainees take the role of learners and become aware of what learners experience.

Observation : The Trainees observe the new approach in operation to be able to take a more detached, critical look at their effect.

Trial : The Trainees are given an opportunity to try out the new idea for themselves in a setting where making a mistake will not matter very much.

Integration : The Trainees are encouraged to fit these ideas into the existing set up, in order that they may have a long -term acceptance.

Rationale : The Trainer explains the new ideas and the theories behind them.

Drawing insights from the model, we have adapted it to suit our context. During the past one year, we have been trying out this programme with several trainees, at different levels and situations. The feedback has generally been encouraging. We shall now present the four phases of a typical session.

Phase I Caring and Sharing : Trainees' Problems

As pointed out earlier, most trainees arrive at an INSET programme with negative attitudes. They are either complacent or indifferent. This is further aggravated when trainers present a programme outline, in planning which the trainees have not been taken into confidence. Realizing this lacuna in most INSET programmes and the need to break the ice, we adopt the following strategy: the first task assigned to the trainees is a discussion of their problems in teaching and the constraints under which they work. After discussing these in groups, they report it at the plenary. This helps in the release of tension and mellows down the rigidity in their outlook. If the trainers are willing to lend a patient hearing to their woes, then perhaps, the trainees too have a moral responsibility to listen to what they say. This general climate is further strengthened when we offer them a "Listener's Choice" - that is, we express a willingness to accommodate whatever agenda the trainees have brought with them. Experience has shown that this doesn't turn out to be a formidable task. Very often the expectations of trainees coincide with the plans of experienced trainers. Where they don't, the little extra trouble is worth the effort. The "Yes...but" approach is certainly more effective than "The No....it can't be done" attitude. Negativism breeds negativism. Training, like teaching, involves the creation of conditions congenial for learning to take place. The duration of the first phase varies according to the length of the whole programme.

Phase II Advanced Language Task

This is the most crucial phase. The basic principle is to treat the trainees as advanced learners, which in fact, they are. While enabling them to experience at first hand what an activity is like, this phase also provides them opportunities to engage in communication and thus simultaneously improve their own English. We shall illustrate the rationale of this phase with the help of a sample task.

This task has always proved popular with trainees. It is a simple game usually played in almost every other party. One of the trainees is asked to volunteer to come to the front of the class. The others are now free to 'shoot' questions at him, which demand either a 'Yes' or 'No' as answer. The volunteer should answer

the questions without actually using the words 'Yes' or 'No' or their variants. For instance if someone asks a question like "Do you want to answer this question ?", they should avoid a straightforward 'Yes' or 'No' but give an evasive reply like "Of course I do" or "I am not sure". Trainees often drive the volunteer into a tight corner by posing questions like, "How do you pronounce the word "Y-E-S" or "What is the first letter of the word "Snake" ?". During a game lasting 5 to 7 minutes, at least 50 Yes-No questions are generated. There is generally a lot of interest and participation. In fact more and more trainees volunteer to be guinea pigs and it often becomes difficult to curb their enthusiasm and bring the game to a close.

The trainees have been so involved in the game-like quality of their activity that when they are told that this could be a good task for giving meaningful practice in the use of Yes-No questions, they are in for a mild shock. Having personally experienced the joy of participating in the game, they have no hesitation about its effectiveness with their own learners. In fact many of them have come and told me at the end of the session, "I am just waiting to try this out with my students!".

In order to make this activity more effective as a teacher-training strategy, we ask a small group of trainees to take the role of observers and record the proceedings as well as the language generated during the activity. This enables them to realize the potential of such a task. They have a first hand experience of current trends in ELT viz. the value of interaction, the challenge of problem-solving, focus on communication etc. These observers later report their findings to the whole class.

An additional advantage of choosing an advanced language task is that it proves to be a fluency activity for the trainees. One of the salient features of Indian English is to transform a statement into a question by adding the tag "No" at the end: (eg)" You are angry , no?" "You are coming, no?". This is a literal translation from the mother-tongue. The above activity provides trainees opportunities to get out of their fossilization and frame grammatically correct Yes-No questions.

This approach to providing trainees practice in language use, has psychological validity as well. As long as they play the game, the trainees are not aware of the fact that this is a language activity; further they do not have the faintest notion that this may be aimed at improving their own linguistic skills. While a good teacher-trainer enables the trainees to understand the value of this activity for language-learning, it may be wiser on his part to refrain from telling them that he

was incidentally helping them to improve their own English. For, no teacher of English in India, however poor his competence may be, is ready to accept that it is so.

Phase III Elicitation

During this phase, the trainer has to skilfully effect a transition: trainees who have temporarily assumed the role of advanced learners, once again come back to their original role as teachers. They are asked to reflect on their experience and spell out the various features of the activity which made it an enjoyable learning experience, different from what usually happens in their own classrooms. In this process of elicitation the observer trainees have a significant role to play, by supplementing the insights that the others have gained from their experience. Various features of a communicative task are spelt out: (eg) learner-centredness; focus on communication; scope for interaction; problem-solving approach; learning by doing; relaxed atmosphere etc. It is interesting that in most of our programmes, teachers are able to think of the above features on their own, with very little prompting from the trainers. This confirms the need for respecting teachers' intuitions or sense of plausibility. From having been active learners they are now transformed into intelligent theory constructors.

This phase highlights another area that has been engaging the attention of teacher trainers: namely, the role of theory in teacher education. While trainers are beginning to lose faith in theoretical input for its own sake, it is ironical that many of our trainees still feel happy listening to a solid lecture on theoretical perspectives. They even take down notes very sincerely. However it has been established beyond doubt that such lecture notes safely stay within the two covers of the notebook and hardly get translated into classroom reality. Realizing the importance of theory in teacher education, Esther Ramani has experimented with "Theorising from the Classroom" and established that teachers have intuitions which need to be respected.

Such theorising from experience certainly leaves a more lasting impression than any lecture on theory prior to the activity. While for most teachers, this process of elicitation offers a means of confirming their own hypotheses on the art of teaching, for others it opens up new and exciting horizons.

The first two phases cater to a large extent, to the expectations of trainees from developing countries, as outlined by Anne Wiseman (1990 : p.10)

- to see a 'model' lesson
- "a way of making my lessons more interesting"
- practical tips for the classroom
- a ready made how-to-do-it guide
- to gain knowledge about teaching theories (with less emphasis on the practice)
- "to improve my English"
- proof that a "new" method works.

It may seem too ambitious to try to cater to all these needs through one activity alone; however, we make a modest claim that the activity outlined above does satisfy, to a large extent, all these expectations. Let us briefly examine how this is possible.

This activity may be regarded as a model lesson, better than one involving real learners. In the usual demonstration lessons, the learners have the primary focus of attention and the trainees sit at the back as observers. While in a demonstration lesson the trainees remain passive spectators till the 'show' is over, in our activity they are turned into active participants. Further, while the general attitude to a demonstration lesson is critical, our activity successfully manages to pre-empt them of this critical armour because they have just exhibited their intense involvement in the activity and will now face the risk of exposing themselves as hypocrites if they say they did not find it enjoyable.

The trainees do find in this activity "a way of making their own lessons interesting ", for they have themselves found the activity enjoyable. The trainees reflecting on their experience, together with the observer trainees , will be able to provide a ready made how-to-do-it guide or practical tips for the classroom. The elicitation phase enables them 'to gain knowledge about teaching theories". Usually after the elicitation, we give a mini lecture summarizing all the points which emerged during the phase and adding some more which may not have been thought of. This is useful as a means of consolidating what has been learnt in the case of most trainees. Others who feel happy with the traditional lecture method and look upon anything else as trivial and undignified, find that their feelings of hurt and disappointment at being treated as children, are assuaged to a large extent. At last there is something concrete for them 'to take down' and 'keep for ever'.

With regard to the expectation relating the improvement of their own English, most Indian trainees, as already pointed out, do not share this; however Indian teacher trainers do regard it as one of their major objectives. Such activities as outlined above enable us to avoid a confrontation between the expectations of

trainees and trainers. While enabling trainees to engage in fluency activities, we are careful not to highlight the fact that simultaneously they are also engaged in the process of improving their own English. With regard to the last expectation, viz "proof that a new method works", nothing more needs to be said than that the trainees have seen it working with themselves. They are now convinced of the desirability of such activities in their classrooms, even though some of them may still retain reservations about their feasibility in their own context. This question is more directly addressed in the next phase.

Phase IV Trainees Design Tasks to Suit Their Contexts

What the trainees take back with them to their own classrooms is more important than what they do during the programme. Many INSET programmes generate cordial interaction between trainers and trainees. But once the trainees go back to their classes, they resort to the good old traditional methods and all the inspiration they received at the training programme somehow seems to vapourize. They are not sure how to apply their newly acquired knowledge to their own context. This is the reason why they often come up with the statement "All this may be desirable but certainly not feasible in our context ". To read between the lines, the implication seems to be "I don't know how to apply these insights in my classroom". The fourth phase helps a committed teacher to overcome this mental block by guiding him to explore how what is desirable could be made feasible.

We usually plan this phase as a group activity. Trainees take up their own syllabi/textbooks, and design activities based on them, suitable to their learners, on the basis of their experience in Phase I and their reflections in Phase II. Then they prepare posters on their tasks and display them. Each group vies with the other to prepare the most attractive poster.

The advantages of this phase are many. First and foremost, teachers enjoy the challenge of materials design, for which the system offers them no opportunity. They realise that though the goal is fixed, the means could vary; within the constraints of a prescribed syllabus they could still create a certain amount of freedom within the four walls of the classroom.

The group activity enables teachers from different institutions to come together and share their problems. This sharing itself is an exciting experience, in the absence of any recognised forum/centre for teachers in India. The realisation that fellow-teachers share similar problems gives them self-confidence as teachers.

With proper guidance and support, these groups could emerge as constructive pressure groups that could have an impact on syllabus design, evaluation etc. With autonomy for schools and colleges becoming more widespread, there is a greater possibility of making their voice heard.

The direct supervision and guidance of the expert during the process of materials design, is of immense value. Much needed clarifications are sought. The practical, down-to-earth nature of the task enables the trainees to apply the principles they have learnt, to their own context; in other words, to translate theory into practice. Generally during this phase defiances crumble down. From the belligerent "This won't work for me" syndrome, trainees unconsciously move to the more positive perspective of "How shall I make this work for me ?". The keenness to do better than other groups acts as a further incentive.

In a number of INSET programmes for college teachers in Tamil Nadu, India, we have tried this phase with success. Trainees experience a sense of achievement since they now become active "doers" instead of remaining mere passive listeners. In their feedback they often rate this as the best phase of the programme.

This phase also caters to two of the trainee expectations listed by Wiseman: a readymade how-to-do-guide and practical tips for the classroom. By the end of the session they have a task bank consisting of a number of tasks which can be taken to the classroom straightaway. This offers scope for the much-talked-about follow-up activities of any training programme. By the time they have tried out the whole set of tasks in their classes, they begin to derive confidence in this approach.

5. Conclusion

Before closing, we would like to compare our model with the E.R.O.T.I model already referred to and the Six Category Intervention Analysis originally developed by John Heron at the Human Potential Research Project at Surrey University in 1983.

While our model includes all the features of the EROTI model there are certain differences: we have added the first phase of caring & sharing and combined experience and observation in Phase II, and Trial and Integration in Phase IV. In a humanistic approach to teacher training, we feel that the whole programme might collapse without the ice-breaking session where the trainees are given an

opportunity to give vent to their feelings. Instead of keeping the phase of observation as separate we have built it into the phase of experience itself : as self-observation by most trainees and non-participant observation by a few. The interaction between these two is always interesting and productive.

On similar lines we have combined Trial and Integration in the last phase when trainees design their own materials. In fact, this is preparation for the trial in the classroom, an essential pre-requisite for the Trial. Trainees attempt to integrate these insights into their own syllabus and curriculum.

While we agree that every stage in the E.R.O.T.I model is important, we have arrived at this working compromise as more economical, given the short span of time for INSET programmes and the practical difficulties in monitoring follow-up programmes.

Looking back, we find that our approach has much in common with the Six Category Intervention Analysis. The facilitative dimension of the model consisting of cathartic, catalytic and supportive categories broadly corresponds to our Phases I, II, III and IV. The cathartic phase "clears tensions, feelings, in order to move forward, to rechannel energy in a more purposeful way, to flush out negative feelings, vent stress, in order to think and feel more creatively"(*). The Catalytic category which "elicits self discovery talk, opens new doors, facilitates self-direction"(*), corresponds to our Phases II & III. The last phase in our approach corresponds to the supportive category which "enhances, validates and affirms the fundamental worth of the trainee in an authentic caring way", and "affirms the trainee's potential for growth and change"(*). This raises the self-esteem of the trainee and enables him to move forward.

The above research project is based on the axiom that language learning and language teacher education share two areas in common: both deal with language; both are skills. We have attempted to exploit this commonality by training through learning: that is while they consciously focus on the methodology of learning English they are enabled to engage in communication that will improve their own English. While we do admit that this is not the only (or the best) strategy for teaching/training we are happy that it works.

(*) The quotations with this mark (*) are from a handout prepared by Adrian Underhill for The British Council Summer School on "Training the Trainers" at Exeter during July-August 1990.

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Appendix: Sample Tasks

Task 1 : Focus on writing

The Teacher draws the imaginary map of a country on the blackboard. Students copy them and mark any four places on the map. (e.g.) rivers, cities, mountains. Then they write a description of the location of each place. These descriptions (not maps) are exchanged with neighbours. Students work in pairs and try to figure out the location from the description. They then check each other's maps and discuss the inadequacies in the descriptions.

[I learnt this task from Ron V White at the British Council RSF Seminar, Jaipur, India]

Task 2 Dictogloss : Focus on Listening

The teacher reads a passage at normal speed and students attempt to take it down. After the dictation, they work in groups and try to arrive at the original passage by collating each others' narrations.

[From R.Wajnryb: Grammar Dictation, OUP 1990]

Task 3 Drama Activity : Focus on Speaking

Students are asked to divide the page into five equal parts. On the topmost part they draw the head of any creature, real or imaginary, fold that portion and pass it on to their neighbour. Now they are asked to draw the neck, trunk, legs and lowermost part of the body, in the same manner. Finally they open the page and choose two of the best creatures and write a dialogue between them. They then come to the front of the class and role play the dialogue.

[From Maley A & Duff A: Drama Techniques in Language Teaching p.164]

Task 4 : Focus on reading

Two stories involving characters with the same names are selected. The sentences in both stories are jumbled up and each student receives one sentence. As a group they have to sort out the two stories.

[From Challenge to Think by Frank, Rinvolucri and Berer, OUP 1982]

ADAPTING THE SIX CATEGORY INTERVENTION ANALYSIS TO PROMOTE FACILITATIVE TYPE SUPERVISORY FEEDBACK IN TEACHING PRACTICE

Bahiyah Abdul Hamid and Hazita Azman

Introduction

The overall perspective of this paper is influenced by the values and assumptions of a person-centered, non-prescriptive, humanistic approach to supervision, supervisory intentions and supervisory feedback in teaching practice in pre-service language teacher education. In this context, a supervisor (Wallace, 1991:107) "is not only a person who has, as substantial element in his/her professional remit, the duty of monitoring and improving the quality of teaching done by others in a given educational situation but he is also a person who is especially concerned with the well-being of his trainees and the goings on in the language classroom". He is also a person, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983:292), who during supervisory contact has not only the intent of improving instruction but also the intent of increasing growth in trainees. In supervisory contact we envision the supervisor playing a significant role in establishing the optimum climate so that he can empower his trainees to make the choices for their own development. We therefore agree with Combs (in Biehler and Snowman, 1990:484) in that the role of the supervisor, "is not one of prescribing, making, molding, forcing, coercing, coaxing or cajoling; it is one of ministering to a process already in being. The role required of the supervisor is that of a facilitator, encourager, helper, assister, colleague, and friend to his trainees".

In applying the Six Category Intervention Analysis to teaching practice supervision, the terms "supervisor" and "trainee" can apply in a formal, occupational setting where two people on different levels in the same organisation relate in terms of their work roles, and in this situation, one person is intervening in relation to the other. The interventions may be about teaching,about classroom management, or even about personal matters that have a bearing on teaching. The structure and norms of the organization, and the job descriptions of those involved, will normally provide a tacit contract, an understanding of the extent of the

supervisor's remit. In this situation we envision the supervisor as an enabler, and the central enabling relationship is to service the personal development of the trainee.

In pre-service language teacher education in Malaysia, the supervision of teaching practice is often the case of eyeball-to-eyeball contact or face-to-face interaction between a supervisor and a trainee with reference to some classroom teaching that has previously been observed. True to our previously envisioned roles of the supervisor, we feel that the main aim of this contact or interaction should be to discuss and analyse the teaching observed for the sole purpose of empowering the personal and thereafter professional development of the trainee. If this be the case, the supervisory feedback must be facilitative in nature and must be direct, accurate and positive so that this aim can be put across in a precise manner. It is our contention that the clearer the supervisor's intentions, the better the chances are for the actual supervisory feedback to be facilitative so as to empower and encourage the trainee to face the full range of teaching - related problems and opportunities with increasing awareness, self- direction and creativity. Simply stated it could sound like this: "*If your intention is clear then your actual intervention has a much better chance of being clear. The intervention won't be clear if your intention isn't clear*".

We feel that the Six Category Intervention Analysis developed by John Heron is a model that allows for this development. Our immediate objective in this paper is not only to introduce the model as a whole but also to focus on facilitative type feedback and enabling skills so that you may be able not only to transfer the application of the relevant intentions and interventions introduced but also to transfer facilitative type feedback and enabling skills to your own professional context in the domain of your own practice.

THE SIX CATEGORY INTERVENTION ANALYSIS

The Six Category Intervention Analysis developed in 1983 by John Heron in the Human Potential Research Project at Surrey University, is a model for interpersonal skills training designed for people who need to give feedback, evaluation, guidance and support to others in an enabling capacity. It is a model that has been used and tested in a wide range of formal and informal settings where effectiveness in face-to-face interaction is important and where both directive and facilitative skills are called for. It is from this that we believe it has potential for teaching practice supervision. It is very easy to fall into the trap of believing that the Six Category Intervention Analysis is only a toolkit of helping interventions.

We believe it is more than this, it represents a set of person-centered values and attitudes towards the whole idea of what it means to support and enable the well-being of another person to develop his/her potential. These attitudes and values are the very foundation of our notion of "facilitating development".

Intervention

According to Heron (1990:30) our definition of *intervention* is any identifiable piece of verbal and/or nonverbal behaviour that is part of the supervisor's interaction with the trainee in an enabling situation. For the purpose of this paper, our account of the different interventions refer mostly to the supervisor's verbal behaviour. We realize that the manner and timing of the supervisor's verbal behaviour and the nonverbal accompaniments of verbal behaviour are critical in determining how the verbal behaviour comes across to the trainee. However, because of the nature of this paper and its scope, which are our natural constraints, we think these can best be dealt with in a workshop presentation of the training of the Six Category Intervention Analysis at some future date.

In this paper, we give an account of verbal behaviour in two different ways namely ***linguistic*** and ***intentional***. In the linguistic mode, we give you an ordinary linguistic description of the form of words that can be used in the intervention, for example, advise, give knowledge relevant to needs and interests of trainee and so on. In the intentional mode, we define the intervention in terms of its intention - that is according to Heron (1990:3) "in terms of what its point and purpose is, what the supervisor wants to achieve by it". For example, the supervisor may intend to increase the self-determination of the trainee in choosing more freely, cooperating with others, developing autonomy and so on, (refer to pages 92 - 95 for detailed accounts of linguistic and intentional verbal behaviour). We strongly feel that at this juncture it is best to leave it to you to get the sense of what forms of words and of what particular words to use. An account of the intention of an intervention takes us directly to the whole matter of "facilitating development". It is our contention that the right forms of words will follow naturally from you grasping the intention of the intervention in responding appropriately to a given enabling situation. We are sure you will agree with us that there are multiple ways of stating an intervention and that it may have infinite numbers of verbal forms. This is why we have not given you examples of the actual words to use in fear that you may equate a verbal formula or a given set of words to an intention. We believe that an intervention is a person-to-person intention that can have endless variations of verbal forms. We acknowledge that many interpersonal situations between supervisor and trainee are similar, and so require similar interventions with the same basic sort of intention. But each of these similar situations is also in some

ways quite unique and the intervention in it needs a distinctive choice of diction, grammar, timing and manner of speech.

Though it is not within the scope of this paper to give you the actual words to use, we want to emphasize the importance of the grammatical form of an intervention and the choice of actual words used in it because both are critical in getting the intention across with a certain amount of precision. And we think these things, once again can best be dealt with in a workshop presentation for the training of the Six Category Intervention Analysis in which the use of role play can simulate the unique properties of real-life situations, and can provide a context for the choice of words in which a supervisory feedback repertoire can be formulated with great self-awareness on the part of the supervisor. Our purpose now is to clarify basic supervisory intentions and interventions.

The Six Category Model

In adapting the Six Category Model to supervision, we can identify two broad categories of supervisor intentions which may be *authoritative* and/or *facilitative* and six corresponding interventions. According to Heron (1990:4) each category is one major class of intention that subsumes a whole range of sub-intentions and specific behaviours that manifest them. Because of this, we feel this model has great flexibility and power to cover a very wide range of trainee needs and supervisor roles and to cover them with practical intent. At the same time its wide scope makes it possible for supervisors (anywhere, not only in the Malaysian context) to explore variations in the use of language in order to make each intervention more effective in, and more suited to its context. The two intentions, the six categories and the aims of each intervention are shown below:

INTENTION 1 : **Authoritative**
INTERVENTION:

1. ***Prescriptive*** - Aim: It seeks to direct the behaviour of the trainee, usually behaviour that is outside the supervisor-trainee relationship.
2. ***Informative*** - Aim: It seeks to impart knowledge, information, meaning to the trainee.
3. ***Confronting*** - Aim: It seeks to raise the trainee's consciousness about some limiting attitude or behaviour of which he/she is relatively unaware.

INTENTION 2 : **Facilitative**
INTERVENTION:

4. ***Cathartic*** - Aim: It seeks to enable the trainee to discharge, to abreact painful emotions, primary grief, fear and anger.

5. ***Catalytic*** - Aim: It seeks to elicit self- discovery, self-direct living, learning and problem-solving from the trainee.

6. ***Supportive*** - Aim: It seeks to affirm the worth and value of the trainee's person, qualities, attitudes or actions.

(Adapted from J.Heron, 1990: 5-6).

The first set of three interventions are called *"authoritative"* because according to Heron they are rather more hierarchical: the supervisor is taking responsibility for and on behalf of the trainee-guiding his/her behaviour, giving instruction, raising consciousness, (see also authoritative power below). The second set of three interventions are called *"facilitative"* because they are rather less hierarchical: the supervisor is seeking to enable / empower the trainee to become more autonomous and take more responsibility for himself by helping to release the emotional pain that blocks his personal power, by eliciting self-directed learning by affirming the trainee's worth as a unique being (see also autonomous power below).

In supervision we want to expound that the authoritative interventions are neither more or less useful or valuable than the facilitative ones: these all together depend on the nature of the supervisor's role, the particular needs of the trainee and what the focus or content of the intervention is. We want to reiterate that it is the specific, concrete context that makes one intervention more or less valuable than another, nothing else. However, it is our observation that most supervisors in our Malaysian context through traditional types of education and training have rather out done authoritative sorts of intervention and have often omitted the facilitative sorts altogether. As we see it, this does not make authoritative interventions bad per se, rather it just makes them look bad because they have a much greater possibility of degenerating when they are used to the exclusion of facilitative ones. Neither are we advocating the over-reliance of facilitative interventions to the exclusion of authoritative ones. We are suggesting that in teaching practice within the Malaysian context, the supervisor should be consciously aware of his role and intention as a supervisor so that he can use interventions to find the appropriate balance for each of his trainees to be able then to move his trainee from other directed authoritative power towards self-directed autonomous power. Hence, the title of our paper. This notion can better be explained through the description of authoritative power and autonomous power below.

Authoritative power: This is the power that is exercised for and on behalf of the trainee by others (usually the supervisor in this context) whose ultimate intention is to help the trainee become self directing and autonomous. The supervisor uses his/her power and skill to help the trainee in situations where the trainee cannot immediately help himself. Implicit in this is the supervisor's assumption that this will help the trainee towards his next most autonomous phase.

Autonomous power: This is the power that the trainee is able to exercise for and on behalf of himself in response to the task in hand, thereby experiencing himself as basically self-directing in taking responsibility for himself, in being self-determining and self-evaluating. The supervisor uses his/her skill to facilitate and support the trainee's autonomy. Implicit in this is the assumption that at some level the trainee has the expertise to know what he needs to do, and how he needs to do it.

(Adapted from A. Underhill, October, 1989:254)

We feel that the balance between the two intentions usually makes the supervisory feedback more precise. What kind of balance depends again upon the total context - the supervisor, the trainee, the supervisory agenda and so on. The balance between authoritative and facilitative interventions is hence, actually about the proper exercise of power: first, the supervisor's power over the trainee, second, the power shared by supervisor and trainee with each other, and third, the autonomous power within the trainee. We support Heron's view (1990:7) that "the three forms of power need each other - always in due measure and ever-changing ratios - to keep healthy". But we want to impress upon you that the supervisor must be willing to relinquish his authoritative power in order to enable/empower the trainee to gain autonomous power.

Points of Interest

There is nothing significant or unchallengeable about the number "six" or about the way the model is conceptually put together. We hope that by introducing it to you, you may be able to amend and modify it via personal experiential inquiry, through testing it against the evidence provided or by using it in action in your own context. We want to remind you that each intervention category is not exhaustive and we have confidence that you may be able to add more entries to it. In using the six categories, you may discover significant areas of overlap between intervention categories. For instance, you may find informative interventions that are confronting, prescriptive intervention that are catalytic and so on. Where such overlap occurs, we suggest that the intervention is classified under that category

which covers its primary intent. We want also to reiterate the fact that there is no real value hierarchy among the intervention categories. In Heron's words (1990:7) we may be able to say that not any one of them "is in principle good or bad in relation to any other: in the abstract they are of equal value." To find the value of the interventions if need be we suggest that you evaluate them comparatively in use because we feel that the practical context alone will determine whether one category is better or worse than another - this entails the situational value of each category. Nevertheless, from our suggestions earlier, we see in general terms that the catalytic intervention has a key functional value in supervision for it paves the way for trainees' personal power in living, learning and growing. In all, we see the supportive intervention as no less of functional importance in supervision because we feel that in teaching practice supervision all the interventions depend for their validity in action, on a supportive attitude of the mind and being of the supervisor, that is, one that respects the value of the trainee and of his/her autonomy. In supervision, we acknowledge the need for all the interventions to overlap with this kind of tacit support.

Intervention: Valid, Degenerate and Perverted

In learning to use the six categories of interventions you are not learning to use a particular method of counselling, rather you are acquiring a set of analytic and behavioural tools to shape your own method of practice. In the ideal case a skilled supervisor using the six categories will be someone according to Heron (1990:9) who (a) is equally proficient in a wide range of interventions in each of the categories; (b) can move elegantly, flexibly and cleanly from one intervention to another and from one intent to another, as the developing situation and the purposes of the interaction require; (c) is aware at any given time of what intervention he is using and why; (d) knows when to lead the trainee and when to follow the trainee; (e) has a creative balance between power over the trainee, power shared with the trainee and the facilitation of power within the trainee. With these the skilled supervisor must also be aware of whether his interventions are valid, degenerate or perverted.

A valid intervention is one that is appropriate to the trainee's current state and stage of development, and to the developing supervisor - trainee interaction. The intervention is appropriate when it fits any or all of the following:

a) It is the right category of intention (*supervisor may choose authoritative and / or facilitative intention).

b) It is the right sort of intervention within that category (*supervisor may choose intervention 1 - 3 for authoritative intent or intervention 4 - 6 for facilitative intent, see page 88).

c) Its content and use of language is fitting for both supervisor and trainee (*see pages 92 - 95 for linguistic and intentional verbal behaviour).

d) It is delivered in the right manner by the supervisor (see discussion on intervention).

(e) It is delivered with good timing (see discussion on intervention).

**Note of caution*: We agree with Underhill (June 1991, Six Category Training Workshop in British Council course 9165) that any intervention consists of far more than just words the supervisor uses: it consists of the totality of his/her intention, which is transmitted both verbally and non-verbally. This means to effect a significant change in intervention, a significant change in intention is required.

A degenerate intervention is one that fails in one, and usually several of the above respects, because the supervisor lacks personal development himself, or training, or experience, or awareness, or some combination of these.

A perverted intervention is one that is deliberately malicious and seeks to intentionally do harm to the trainee.

(Adapted from J. Heron, 1990:9-10)

This paper has as a whole dealt with valid interventions as far as their basic intention is concerned. We want to give you an account of the degenerate intervention in the following section as well in order to make you aware that all categories of intervention have possibilities of becoming degenerate. In the following section, we have eliminated accounts of perverted intervention solely on the basis of our discussions in the sections entitled ***"The Six Category Model"*** and ***"Points of Interest"***.

SIX CATEGORY INTERVENTION ANALYSIS
Feedback and Enabling Skills for Facilitating Development

INTENTION 1 : **AUTHORITATIVE**
INTERVENTION:

1. ***Prescriptive*** -

Aim: It seeks to direct the behavior of the trainee, usually behavior that is outside the supervisor-trainee relationship.

Valid Interventions: Linguistic Verbal Behaviour: 1. Advise, suggest, recommend, direct, order. 2. Influence directly the behaviour of trainee. 3. Advise so that advice leaves trainee free to take it or leave it. 4. Advise so that advice does not encroach on self- determining competence of trainee. Intentional Verbal Behavior: 1. To increase self-determination of trainee so that he can choose freely, cooperate with others and develop autonomy.

Degenerate Interventions: Linguistic Verbal Behaviour: 1. Take over benevolently. 2. Oppress by using "should", "ought", "must" and so on. Intentional Verbal Behaviour: 1. To create dependency on supervisor. 2. To oppress moralistically.

2. ***Informative*** -

Aim: It seeks to impart knowledge, information, meaning to the trainee.

Valid Interventions: Linguistic Verbal Behaviour: 1. Give knowledge relevant to needs and interests of trainee (can involve outside knowledge, interpretations of trainee's behaviour, supervisor's own experience or supervisor's observations). 2. Give non-confronting feedback. 3. Give information that counters persistent belief that problems are insoluble. Intentional Verbal Behaviour: 1. To encourage trainee to be active in the learning process. 2. To encourage trainee to think independently. 3. To appraise trainee.

Degenerate Interventions: Linguistic Verbal Behaviour: 1. Overteach seductively. 2. Overteach oppressively. Intentional Verbal Behaviour: 1. To put spotlight on supervisor. 2. To treat trainee condescendingly/to patronize trainee.

3. ***Confronting***

Aim: It seeks to raise the trainee's consciousness about some limiting attitude or behaviour of which he/she is relatively unaware.

Valid Interventions: Linguistic Verbal Behaviour:
1. Bring to light unaware, damaging behaviour. 2. Highlight rigidities so that insight can occur. 3. Challenge restrictive behaviour, attitudes, beliefs. 4. Invite trainee to acknowledge "games", smokescreen, excuses, distortions, inconsistencies, self-defeating talk and behaviour, defensive awareness. 5. Give support of trainee and understanding of the behaviour in 4. 6. Discriminate between actor and action. Intentional Verbal Behaviour: 1. To awaken trainee's interest in, and commitment to, intentional growth, development and change.

Degenerate Interventions: Linguistic Verbal Behaviour:
1. Sledgehammer. 2. Beat around the bush. 3. Smile and demolish. Intentional Verbal Behaviour: 1. To trigger anxious attacks. 2. To pussyfoot. 3. To sabotage (to stab trainee from the back).

INTENTION 2 : **FACILITATIVE**
INTERVENTION:

4. ***Cathartic***

Aim: It seeks to enable the trainee to discharge, to abreact painful emotion, primary grief, fear and anger.

Valid Interventions: Linguistic Verbal Behaviour:
1. Clear tension, feeling in order to more forward - to rechannel energy in a more purposeful way. 2. Flush out negative feelings, vent stress, in order to think and feel more creatively because the anxiety of unfinished business percolates our thoughts, expectations and body. Intentional Verbal Behaviour: 1. To alter view of reality after acknowledging or discharging feelings 2. To be aware of tensions and of possibility of their release. 3. To learn from what feelings can tell us. 4. To increase openness to and acceptance of feelings and to manage these feelings creatively - must be followed through for integration, insight and learning to occur.

Degenerate Interventions: Linguistic Verbal Behaviour:
1. Give unskilled or unnecessary exposure to emotions and so on. 2. Go too deep into feelings too soon. 3. End abruptly or unskilfully. Intentional Verbal Behaviour: 1. To trespass on feelings. 2. To give unnecessary exposure to things not meaningful during contact.

5. ***Catalytic***

Aim: It seeks to elicit self-discovery, self- direct living, learning and problem- solving in the trainee.

Valid Interventions: Linguistic Verbal Behaviour:
1. Elicit self-discovery talk and open new doors to facilitate self-direction, self-discovery and learning. 2. Initiate person-centred change. Intentional Verbal Behaviour: 1. To promote self-insight to understand trainee's own processes, influences, causes and effect. 2. To open up new directions, new possibilities, and new choices.

Degenerate Interventions: Linguistic Verbal Behaviour:
1. Give prescription in catalytic clothing. 2. Ask too many inappropriate questions. 3. Collude with trainee's misguided self-direction. Intentional Verbal Behaviour:
1. To prescribe. 2.* To abdicate. 3. To mislead.

6. *Supportive*

Aim: It seeks to affirm the worth and value of the trainee's person, qualities, attitudes or actions.

Valid Interventions: Linguistic Verbal Behaviour:
1. Enhance, validate, affirm fundamental worth of trainee in authentic and caring way. 2. Give unqualified acceptance of the trainee. 3. Show caring and not colluding. 4. Affirm aspects of trainee's work, intention, qualities, achievements and so on. Intentional Verbal Behaviour: 1. To raise self-esteem and hence the ability to move forward.

Degenerate Intervention: Linguistic Verbal Behaviour:
1. Give qualified support: "That's nice, but it's a shame..." 2. Give moral patronage: "You did O.K." or "Congratulations on discovering what I discovered years ago....." Intentional Verbal Behaviour: 1. To patronize.

(Adapted from J. Heron, 1990: 1 - 178 and June 1991, "Six Category Intervention Analysis" unpublished handout in British Council course 9165)

**Abdicated Power*: This is the degenerate version of autonomous power. It is power that has been inappropriately given to the trainee, not because the trainee is ready to take it, but because the supervisor is unable or unwilling to take it, or because the supervisor understands trainee's need for autonomy, but is unskilled in facilitating it appropriately. Implicit in this may be the supervisor's own confusion and discomfort with his/her role and the projection of that confusion onto the trainee.

(Adapted from A. Underhill, October 1989:254)

Conclusion

In conclusion we wish to impress upon you once again that the model introduced should only be a guideline in the mind of the enabler, it is not a precise blueprint or programme of behaviour. Thus, we challenge you to engage your own common sense, imagination and creativity so that you can transfer the application of the relevant intentions and interventions introduced in this paper to your own professional context in the domain of your own enabling service. We believe the model introduced is not an elixir to be administered indiscriminately to all. But it comes from the heart and is a powerful conception of what supervision should be and should aim to achieve and that by utilizing the model carefully, we envision the supervisor markly improving his supervisory identity, his supervisory intention, his supervisory commitment, his supervisory performance and his overall effectiveness in supervision.

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PLANNING A TEFL EDUCATION PROGRAM: POLICIES, PERSPECTIVES AND PROMISE

Jane Jackson Fahmy and Linda Bilton

Abstract

When establishing a TEFL education program in a developing country, assistance is often sought from outside specialists. Their task is a challenging one. Simply transplanting a model designed for a native English setting is not enough; adjustments need to be made for the particular EFL context. The consultants must become familiar with the local sociocultural situation, educational system, and language policies. This fact-finding should continue after the student teachers arrive if the program is to reflect the concerns, beliefs, and aspirations of the participants.

This paper describes a case study of the undergraduate TEFL education program at Sultan Qaboos University in Oman. The first part focuses on the Omani context of language learning and the rationale for the development of a TEFL program. The second stage describes the findings of a study which identified the student teachers' level of English, their reasons for studying EFL, their views about EFL language learning in Oman, and their perceptions about the importance of various subjects in their TEFL program.

Preplanning and ongoing information-gathering of this nature are essential to provide TEFL education programs with a high degree of relevance to the local sociocultural context of language learning and teaching.

Introduction

In this century worldwide, English has become an important language of trade and technology. As a result, there is an urgent need to learn English in non-English speaking countries - a need which creates a great demand for well-qualified EFL teachers. In developing countries many Ministries of Education are actively encouraging their own nationals to become language teachers, thereby reducing dependence on expatriates. Rather than send their students for training in Britain, the United States, Australia, or another English-speaking country, some governments have decided to establish TEFL programs locally.

When setting up such programs, help is often sought from experienced TEFL curriculum specialists from Western countries. The task of these consultants is a demanding one. It is not enough to merely implement a model designed for a native English setting; alterations must be made for the particular EFL context (Abuhamdia, 1984; Adams Smith, 1983a; 1984; Dubin and Wong, 1990; Llamzon, 1986; Pratt, 1982).

Before drafting the curriculum for a new TEFL education program, the consultants need to gather information about the sociocultural setting and local language policy (Dubin and Olshtain, 1986; Dubin and Wong, 1990; Richards and Hino, 1983). This fact-finding should continue after the student teachers arrive. Without the input of the participants, the TEFL specialists will not be able to fully understand the sociocultural context of langauge learning and teaching in that particular setting. The students' perspectives must not be overlooked.

This position calls for an ethnographic/ holistic approach to teacher education whereby the TEFL consultants gather both qualitative and quantitative data in order to learn as much as possible about their students (Hammersley and Atkinson, 1983). This includes their students' reasons for studying English, their attitudes about language learning and teaching and their own perceptions of their needs and expectations within the framework of the local sociocultural context (Anderson, 1985; Dubin and Wong, 1990; Dudley-Evans, 1983; Horowitz, 1985; Noss, 1985; Spolsky, 1989). This process is essential if the TEFL program is to be culturally appropriate for the participants and highly relevant to the local situation (Berns, 1990; Dubin and Wong, 1990; Edelhoff, 1985; Llamzon, 1986; Trim, 1985).

The promotion of English in a country that has had limited contact with the West is a daring venture. While the local administrators may recognize the need for English to foster economic growth and technological advances, they may also be concerned that this policy could lead to cultural contamination and social unrest. By educating their English language teachers on their soil, governments may be attempting to prevent this. However, can the cultural impact of a foreign language be neutralized?

In an ESL setting, it is understood that students will be exposed to the culture of the host community, but what about in an EFL setting? Should TEFL education make reference to the sociocultural norms and values of particular English-speaking countries? Would TEFL student teachers be fearful of becoming Westernized? Would they undergo a dilemma of conflicting cultural allegiances? Should TEFL specialists try to minimize these possible conflicts?

All of these questions must be considered when setting up a TEFL program and yet to date there is almost no literature about the sociocultural dimension of programs of this nature and almost no data-based research has been reported on (Bernhart and Hammadou, 1987: Gebhard, 1988).

With this in mind, an investigation of a new TEFL education program was carried out in the SE corner of the Arabian peninsula. This paper describes a case study of the undergraduate TEFL program that was opened at Sultan Qaboos University (SQU) in the Sultanate of Oman in 1986. The TEFL courses were designed to prepare students academically and professionally for EFL teaching positions in Omani junior high and secondary schools (Adams Smith, 1983b, 1984; Gravel, 1986).

The first stage of the study explored the sociocultural context of English language learning in Oman. Background information was sought about the Omani educational system and the place of English language teaching in it. The rationale, goals, and syllabus of the TEFL program at Sultan Qaboos University were then looked at within the framework of the national and university language policies.

Data gathering was carried out by means of basic ethnographic techniques. Local and expatriate TEFL experts were interviewed including the former Director of the English Language Teaching Unit of the Omani Ministry of Education, the Omani Director of Educational Research at SQU, the American TEFL curriculum consultant who was responsible for designing the SQU TEFL syllabus, and the TEFL program's current director. Government documents and reports were also reviewed at the libraries of the British Council, the Omani Ministry of Education, and Sultan Qaboos University (Omani Collection).

To enrich the sociolinguistic database and provide a bank of information for present and future TEFL educators at Sultan Qaboos University, the second stage of the study concentrated on the participants in the TEFL program during the third year of its operation.

A standardized proficiency test was administered to the student teachers to supply an objective measure of their English language competence. In addition, by means of a questionnaire, information was solicited from the TEFL student teachers about:

1) their language and cultural background;
2) their reasons for specializing in English;
3) their attitudes towards the English language and culture;

4) their opinions about EFL language learning in Oman;
5) and their perceptions about the importance of including various subjects in the SQU TEFL program.

Would there be any evidence of an identity crisis on the part of the Omani TEFL student teachers? Several EFL educators with teaching experience in the Arabian Gulf have described the cultural conflict that can interfere with the English language development of Arab students (Abuhamdia, 1984; El-Sayed, 1988; Fellman, 1973; Zughoul et al., 1979).

> ..the Arabs find themselves caught in a dilemma, torn between loyalty to Arabic, out of ideological, cultural, and nationalistic values, on the one hand, and the linguistic concomitants of importing and adopting technology from its English-based sources, on the other (Abuhamdia, 1984, p.28).

However, most of their comments are based on subjective views rather than on research. Would a survey of the cultural attitudes of the Omani TEFL student teachers uncover any hostility or suspicion towards the English language and culture? Would there be any proof of linguistic and cultural disorientation on the part of the TEFL student teachers at Sultan Qaboos University?

SQU Study

Part I

Background

a. Formal Language Learning

Formal education did not begin in the Sultanate of Oman until 1970, when Sultan Qaboos came to power. At this time, there were only 900 students in Oman - all boys, studying in three elementary schools with thirty teachers (Adams Smith, 1983a; Ganjvr, 1988; Sultanate of Oman Ministry of Information, 1986). Education spread rapidly to all corners of the Sultanate in the 1970's and 80's and was offered to both boys and girls from grades one to twelve. By 1988, the number of schools had increased dramatically to 588 with 330,457 students and over 8,000 teachers (Al-Lamki, 1989; Sultanate of Oman Ministry of Information, 1989).

In the early stages of Oman's development, English language teaching was guided by the Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States (ABEGS, 1983). It was decided that, like their neighbors, English would be taught in Oman as the first foreign language in public schools from grades four to twelve. Thus, by the time Omani students graduate from high school, they have had nine years or approximately 1090.5 (Arts Majors) or 994.5 (Science Majors) hours of instruction in EFL. The distribution of hours is as follows: elementary 262.5 hours, junior high 300 hours, and secondary 528 hours (Arts)/ 432 hours (Science)(Al-Lamki, 1989)

As part of its mandate, the ABEGS formulated a common educational policy for the Gulf States. English was considerd necessary for modernization and the instrumental value of the language was emphasized. The ABEGS also published guidelines for the teaching of the English language and culture in schools in the region. Included were the following goals in the affective domain:

The pupil should:

1. develop a positive attitude towards learning English as a target language, to the extent that it does not affect his positive attitude towards Arabic.

2. be aware of additional basic characteristics of English culture, in addition to those of Arabic and Islamic culture.

3. be willing to enjoy listening to English spoken in different modes (songs, dialogues, speeches, etc.) and reading for pleasure, in addition to enjoying listening to Arabic spoken in the same modes and others.

4. find pleasure in discovering new means of reading and listening to English (and Arabic).

5. be willing to learn more names of English places and people, in addition to Arab and Islamic names of places and people.

6. be willing to use English as another means of communication (in addition to Arabic).

7. acquire reasonable understanding of the native speakers of English on condition that it does not create a negative attitude towards the pupil's Arab/Islamic culture.

8. have continuing interest in reading English books and periodicals that deal with various subjects, with special interest in Arabic and Islamic topics.

9. enjoy constantly increasing variety of good English dramatic and other programmes on the radio, television, etc., especially on Arab and Islamic topics.

10. be able to express, in speech or in writing, the beliefs, values, etc. acquired from the English and Arab/Islamic culture (Arab Bureau of Education for the Gulf States, 1983).

These goals convey the desire of the ABEGS to preserve the Arabic language and Islamic culture, while promoting the English language proficiency of the students. They also convey the fear by some that Western culture might have a negative effect on the native language and culture of their schoolchildren.

b. Informal Language Learning

Opportunities for informal language learning in the Sultanate are very limited. Entry to the country is restricted so that most visitors are businessmen, diplomats or members of tour groups who make only brief contact with the local population. Most expatriate workers and their families reside in the capital area, not in the interior where 80% of the students live (Al-Lamki, 1989). As a result, students in Oman have very little opportunity to mix with English people or practice their English language skills. For the vast majority of Omani schoolchildren, the only contact they have with English is in the classroom; therefore, the quality of language instruction that they receive is crucial.

c. English Language Teachers

In 1989 there were 1539 English language teachers in the Omani school system. Of these, only 19.0% were Omanis; the rest of the teaching force were foreigners of various nationalities: Sudanese (28.3%), Sri Lankans (12.7%), Egyptians (11.0%), Jordanians (10.2%), Tunisians (7.4%), Indians (5.1%), Pakistanis (3.7%), British (1.0%) and others (1.8%). Almost all of the teachers spoke English as a foreign language with varying degrees of fluency and had little or no formal training in EFL teaching methodology (Al Barwani, 1983; Al-Lamki, 1989; Bint, 1982). To further exacerbate the situation, some of the expatriates did not speak Arabic and had problems communicating with the Omanis.

Consequently, there has been a high turnover of English language staff who have had difficulty adjusting to the physical, linguistic, and sociocultural conditions in rural or semi-rural Oman.

d. The National Language Policy

The rapid expansion of the Omani school system necessitated the hiring of a great many foreign teachers, but the Sultan and his Governing Council were steadfast in their position that the schools should promote Omani values, culture, and national pride. Moreover, in 1978, the Omani Education and Training Council was set up to ensure the "Omanization" of the educational system. One of the objectives was the replacement of non-Omani English language teachers by nationals (Al Barwani, 1983; Birks and Sinclair, 1987; Sultanate of Oman Ministry of Education, 1988).

In keeping with the national policy of "Omanization", six teacher training centers were opened in the Sultanate. By completing a two year program, Omanis could become qualified to teach in Omani elementary schools (Sultanate of Oman Development Council, 1988).

1986 marked the opening of the first degree-granting institution in the country, Sultan Qaboos University (SQU). This technical institution was set up with English as the medium of instruction in the Colleges of Medicine, Engineering, Science, and Agriculture since English was thought to be "the most practical language to enable the university to keep abreast of world developments in scientific fields" (Sultanate of Oman Ministry of Information, 1986, p. 77). In addition, a TEFL program was established in the College of Education and Islamic Sciences to meet the growing demand for qualified English language teachers to staff Omani junior high and secondary schools.

The SQU language policy for the university was set down by the SQU Governing Council and falls in line with the national policy. Al-Manthri, the current Vice-Chancellor of the university and Minister of Education for the country.

> ...the inculcation of Islamic values, intellectual discipline and character building will be emphasized, along with the acquisition of academic and professional qualifications. While moving into a modern age, Oman does not wish to lose its special identity, based on long-standing traditions and the Islamic way of life. Young Omanis suddenly faced with the challenges of a modern complicated world must be equipped to cope with the demands of

> a changing society and the impact of the outside world without detriment to their heritage and the values of their Islamic society (SQU Administration, 1984, p.11).

Thus, English is viewed as a means of conveying scientific and technological information to help the country modernize. The transmission of aspects of Western culture that would conflict with Islamic values is to be avoided. While this policy might seem feasible for the ESP-oriented colleges in the scientific domain, what would be the approach of the TEFL program? Would a conflict occur between the national and SQU language policies and the goals of the TEFL program?

e. The SQU TEFL Education Program

Prior to the opening of the university, an American TEFL specialist with extensive teaching experience in the Middle East was recruited to outline the curriculum for the SQU TEFL program. After assessing the sociocultural and educational background of the Omani secondary students and the needs of the school system, the specialist outlined the objectives of the program. At the end of the four year program in TEFL, the prospective English language teacher should:

- demonstrate a thorough proficiency in spoken and written English.

- have familiarity and understanding of the culture and literature of the English-speaking world.

- understand the nature of the English language, its origins, structure, function and varieties.

- be able to apply theoretical knowledge acquired in the program to classroom situations, using a variety of teaching-learning materials.

- be sensitive to the special language problems of Arab learners of English.

- have a sound background in educational theory and developmental psychology.

- be able to analyze and evaluate instructional materials and textbooks used in the Omani school system and abroad.

- be knowledgeable in basic TEFL and applied linguistics terminology. (Gravel, 1986, p.4).

Acceptance into the TEFL program was to be based on the student's secondary test results, a diagnostic test in English, an interview, and personal interest and motivation to specialize in TEFL (Gravel, 1986).

To improve their level of English, TEFL freshmen would receive 15 hrs. a week of training with the English Language Center. In order to obtain their B.Ed. degree, the students would take courses in linguistics, English literature, EFL methodology, and research skills from TEFL specialists. To fulfill university requirements, they would also take the following courses in Arabic from professors in the College of Education: Omani and Islamic Civilization, Arabic, Educational Psychology, Foundations of Curriculum and Education, and the Educational System in Oman and the Gulf (Gravel, 1986).

When the program started in 1986, the American who designed the TEFL syllabus acted as Director and was joined by two Western-educated Omani lecturers. As the program entered its third year, there was a new Canadian Director, four American professors and two Omani lecturers. All of the expatriates had previous experience in the Middle East but had not taught in Oman before.

Part II of this paper focuses on an investigation of the TEFL students' views about their program of studies and EFL learning and teaching in Oman.

Part II

A Case Study of the SQU TEFL Education Program

Because of the sensitive nature of the information to be solicited from the TEFL student teachers, it was important to secure the support of the TEFL and college administrators. A research proposal was reviewed and approved by the Research Committee of the College of Education and Islamic Sciences (CEIS) which included the Omani Director of Educational Research at SQU, the Dean of CEIS, and the Director of the TEFL program. The Arabic translation of the questionnaire to be used in the study was reviewed by the Arab professors on the committee to ensure that the content would be culturally appropriate and

comprehensible to the Omani students. The purpose of the survey and the procedure were then explained to the staff of the TEFL program who agreed to participate and administer the proficiency test and questionnaire to the TEFL students.

Method

Subjects. Seventy-four students in the TEFL program at SQU took part in this study including first, second, and third year students.

Materials. The Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT), an intermediate-level test developed by Harris and Palmer (1986), was used to measure the proficiency of the TEFL students. The listening section (40 mins.) measured their ability to comprehend short statements, questions, and dialogues as spoken by native-speakers of English, while the structure (50 mins.) section measured their ability to use grammatical forms.

By means of a questionnaire, background information was solicited about the students' sex, language(s) spoken at home, home region, years of EFL study, and amount of time spent in an English-speaking country. Subjects were also asked to rate themselves and their parents on five-point scales for understanding, speaking, reading, and writing skills in English.

A modified version of the language and cultural attitude questionnaires used by Gardner (1985), Oller and his associates (1977, 1978, 1982; Asakawa and Oller, 1977; Chihara and Oller, 1978) and Pierson et al. (1980) was translated into Arabic. All of the direct questions required a response on a five-point scale rating the importance of reasons for them to learn English.

The researchers were interested in finding out whether the TEFL student teachers were instrumentally, integratively, or otherwise oriented towards the target language and culture. Traditionally, an integrative orientation is defined as reflecting an interest in learning another language because of "a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other language group" (Lambert, 1974, p. 98), while an instrumental orientation emphasizes "the practical value and advantages of learning a new language" (Lambert, 1974, p. 98). However, as Clement and Kruidenier (1983) have pointed out, there are numerous orientations depending on the linguistic and cultural situation; the interpretations of integrative and instrumental orientations may vary in different contexts. What then, would be the orientations of the TEFL student teachers in Oman?

In the questionnaire, students were also asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement with certain statements about the study and use of English in Oman (partly adapted from Pierson et al. 1980 for the Omani context).

Finally, using a five-point scale, the TEFL student teachers were asked to rate the importance of including various subjects in the TEFL program.

Procedure. The subjects were administered the CELT during regular class periods with intact groups. The students were also given the attitude questionnaire to complete. In Arabic they were asked to give honest answers to all questions so that valuable data could be gathered to help provide better programs at SQU. Students were not required to give their names and their anonymity was assured.

Results

Subjects. There were 48 female and 26 male TEFL student teachers who participated in the study for a total of 74. Included were 23 freshmen, 22 second year, and 29 third year students. Of these, 52 indicated that they spoke only Arabic at home, 14 spoke Arabic in combination with Lawati (4), Belushi (3), Swahili (3), English (3), or Farsi (1), and 8 spoke Arabic, English, and one other language - Lawati (3), Belushi (3) or Swahili (2).

Formal Language Learning

All of the students began studying English as a foreign language in grade four and the majority were taught exclusively by nonnative speakers of English; in fact, only 12 had had native English teachers in secondary school. Almost all of the students (72) of the students had never studied English outside of the Omani Educational system; 1 had studied in Britain and 1 had studied English at a college in Bahrain. Thus, most of these Omani students were being exposed to Western English language professors for the first time in their educational careers.

Informal Language Learning

Most of the students (58) had never visited an English-speaking country. 11 had visited for less than six months, 4 for six months to a year, and only 1 had spent more than a year in an English environment. More than half of the students (46) were from the interior (semi-rural or rural parts of Oman), far from the areas where English-speaking expatriates reside; 24 were from Muscat, the capital, and 4

were from another Arabian Gulf country. Thus, the students' exposure to the culture of English-speaking countries and their opportunities to interact with native English speakers for the most part has been very limited.

EFL Proficiency

Table 1 gives the means and standard deviations of the various measures of EFL proficiency and related variables. To provide a measure of the students' overall proficiency in English, the scores on the listening and structure sections of the CELT were averaged together. The mean score for listening was 69.05 with a standard deviation of 11.95, while the structure section had a mean score of 63.85 and a standard deviation of 10.59. The average of the combined CELT sections resulted in a mean score of 66.45 (S=11.27) in the intermediate to high-intermediate range. Their scores were much higher than those of their university colleagues who had opted to major in science, agriculture, medicine and engineering. These students were also administered the CELT and scored 34.80 (S=14.96) on the combined CELT sections (Jackson Fahmy and Bilton, 1990).

Using a five-point scale ranging from 1 = "not at all" to 5 = "like a native speaker", on average the students rated their understanding the highest at 3.41 with a standard deviation of .57, followed by reading at 3.32 (S=.72), writing at 3.23 (S= .66) and speaking 2.95 (S=.48).

Using the same five-point scale, the students rated their mother's English at an average of 1.26 (S=.73) and their father's at 1.96 (S=1.31). Thus, the majority of parents knew little or no English so it is not surprising that only 11 of the students had indicated that they spoke some English at home.

Reasons for Learning English

Means and standard deviations for each of the direct attitude questions relating to reasons for the student teachers to learn English are given in **Table 2**. The ones judged most important were "to be a well-educated person" and "to take further training in an English-medium institution abroad". Both would appear to represent pragmatic or instrumental motives and sense of professionalism. The least important integrative reasons were "to make friends among English-speaking people" and "have English-speaking friends". This is not surprising since the students' have very limited opportunities to meet English people.

In this small scale study, students were not limited to a pre-determined list of reasons and were given the opportunity to express their views in Arabic. Slightly more than half of the students (42) took the opportunity to make the following statements about why they consider it important to learn English:

- English is an important international language (7)

- to serve Oman (5)

- like to learn foreign languages (5)

- to have another language (4)

- to feel proud of becoming bilingual (4)

- to replace the foreign workers in Oman (4)

- to try to improve the English curriculum in Omani schools (3)

- to be able to translate Arabic (esp. Islamic) books into English (3)

- to know the impressions of English people about Arabs and Islam (3)

- to be able to defend Islam against the criticisms of English people (2)

- to convert English people to Islam (2)

Another look at the reason rated 3.09 on the prepared list, "to better understand English people and their way of life", could indicate a positive integrative orientation towards English people, but note that in Arabic several students explained that it was important to know as much as possible about foreigners who were not Muslims in order to be able to defend Islam. In this case they would not be expressing a wish to integrate with English-speaking people and the orientation would be void of the affective connotation traditionally associated with the integrative motive.

The Use and Study of English in Oman

The student teachers' views about the use and study of English in Oman are also presented in **Table 2.** The phrases that drew the most positive reaction were "I like the sound of English" and "the use of English has helped Oman to develop." Students disagreed strongly with the statements, "I should not have to learn English" and "when using English I do not feel like an Omani anymore". Most indicated that they were not upset when hearing Omanis speaking English to each other. The student teachers appear to be very confident of their identity as Omanis and do not seem to feel threatened by learning English; for them, it is a necessity to help their country advance.

Attitudes towards the SQU TEFL Program

The TEFL student teachers were also asked to express their views about the importance of including various subjects in the TEFL program. As **Table 3** indicates the students considered it extremely important to upgrade their English language proficiency, particularly their grammar and oral skills, and gain practical teaching experience in the school system. It is interesting to note that the study of the culture of English-speaking countries was rated least important.

Discussion

Most TEFL students were found to have an intermediate to high intermediate EFL proficiency. Self-ratings of their language skills further showed that most were unsure of their ability to communicate orally in English. This is important since their language proficiency and level of confidence will influence the extent to which they use English in the classroom and whether they will provide a good model for learners.

The Omani student teachers were aware that they needed to improve their English language skills and, on a very positive note, most expressed a desire for more language training. This language support should be included in the program for as long as it is considered necessary by the participants.

> "language improvement can have a dual function: firstly, and obviously, by raising teachers' proficiency level (with everything else that this entails); secondly, and more subtly, by providing models of teaching behavior and thereby effecting, where desired,

> a change in teaching practices. The tentative conclusion is that language improvement, if integrated with a methodology component, can have a central role in in-service teacher training"
>
> (Berry, 1990, p.97).

Berry's (1990) recommendations are equally applicable to pre-service TEFL education. Language improvement should bolster the confidence of the student teachers, encourage them to use English in the classroom, and allow them to be more at ease with a wider selection of methodology.

The SQU survey showed that most TEFL student teachers seemed to be studying English primarily to achieve pragmatic goals. The language is regarded as important for their academic studies, future employment, and the modernization process in Oman, but has a very limited impact on their personal lives. In fact, the students have expressed only a mild interest in acquiring a better understanding of the target culture; this is likely due to their lack of immediate access to native English-speakers.

The TEFL student teachers exhibited a very positive orientation towards the use and study of English in Oman and did not seem to be worried about becoming Westernized. This is in direct contrast with the observations of Abuhamdia (1984) and El-Sayed (1988) about other Arab learners of EFL.

> ".. the hostility and suspicion one notices in the Arab students' attitudes towards western languages and cultures is natural, since it stems from the fact that the west (Britain, France, and Italy) colonized the Arab World. Since English is a western language, it is viewed by Arab students as a product of imperialism. Yet it is a language they have to learn (whether they like it or not).... They feel that they are compelled to acquire English and they resign themselves to a status of subordination as a result of the cultural and ideological dominance of the native speakers of English in Britain and America. Our students move through the stressful episodes of western acculturation and, as a result, it becomes difficult, according to Lambert, for truly successful EFL learning situations to occur in Arab classes"
>
> (El-Sayed, 1988, p.47-8).

The fact that Oman does not have a history of subordination to an English-speaking country may partly account for the TEFL students apparent lack of hostility towards the English language and culture.

Furthermore, the TEFL students are secure in their identity as Omanis. In harmony with the SQU language and cultural policy, the TEFL student teachers take courses in the Arabic language as well as Omani and Islamic Civilization. As a result, even though they are specializing in a foreign language, the students are not alienated from their cultural heritage. Instead, they are actively encouraged to feel pride in their identity as Omanis and members of the wider Arab community.

While respecting the national language policy and the norms and values of the host country, TEFL educators can help students develop an awareness and appreciation of other cultures without adopting the beliefs associated with it (Alptekin and Alptekin, 1984; Bendll et al., 1984; Bentahila and Davies, 1989; George, 1981; Osterlih, 1986; Shalmar, 1982; Trifonovitch, 1988). This approach encourages students to discover more about their own linguistic and cultural background as well as understand the views of others (Acton and Walker, 1986; Alptekin 1987; Smith 1983). This should lead to:

> ".. an identity which is able to transcend the parochial confines of the native and target cultures by understanding and appreciating cultural diversity and pluralism thanks to the new language, while not losing sight of native norms and values in the process. In short, it is a bilingual and intercultural identity"
>
> (Alptekin and Alptekin, 1984, p. 19).

The promotion of an attitude of linguistic tolerance should help avoid the identity crisis or dilemma of conflicting cultural allegiances that Abuhamdia (1984) and El-Sayed (1988) warn can adversely affect students learning EFL in the Arabian Gulf.

The information gathered from a study such as the one undertaken at SQU can help TEFL educators and student teachers become more familiar with the sociocultural dimension of their program. Survey data can help sensitize TEFL professors to their students' level of English, sociolinguistic and educational backgrounds, expectations, concerns, and attitudes towards the learning situation and the prospect of teaching EFL.

In any TEFL program, whether in Oman, Bangkok, or Jakarta, fact-finding of this type should be conducted periodically as the program matures to help keep staff in tune with the attitudes, interests, and motivations of their students and the host community. Steps could then be taken to incorporate this information into the syllabus and instructional materials. The end result will be more promising TEFL education programs that are culturally and linguistically relevant for the participants in their home environment.

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Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations on Various Measures of EFL Proficiency and time spent in an English-speaking country

Measures	M	S
EFL Proficiency		
Listening	69.05	11.95
Structure	63.85	10.59
CELT (avg.)	66.45	11.27
Self Ratings		
*Understanding	3.41	.57
*Speaking	2.95	.48
*Reading	3.32	.72
*Writing	3.23	.66
Parents' English		
*Mother	1.26	.73
*Father	1.96	1.31
**Time in an English-Speaking Country	1.38	.84

*On a five-point scale ranging from 1 = "not at all" to 5 = "like a native speaker".

**On a five point scale where 1 = "none", 2 = "less than six months", 3 = "six months to a year", 4 = "one to two years", and 5 = "more than two years".

Table 2

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on Direct Attitude Questions (n=74).

*Reasons for Learning English	M	S
1. to be a well-educated person	4.32	.77
2. to take further TEFL training abroad	3.80	1.20
3. to watch English tv programs, videos or films	3.73	1.10
4. for personal satisfaction	3.71	1.06
5. to get a good job	3.70	1.08
6. to read Eng. texts and journals	3.63	1.23
7. to become an English language teacher	3.46	1.36
8. to read English books for pleasure	3.32	1.08
9. to take English language courses abroad	3.25	1.23
10. to better understand English people and their way of life	3.09	1.42
11. plan to visit an English-speaking country	3.09	1.27
12. to make friends among English-speaking people	3.00	1.19
13. to please my family	2.77	1.16
14. have English-speaking friends	2.27	1.17
** The Use and Study of English		
1. I like the sound of English.	3.83	0.88
2. The use of English has helped Oman to develop.	3.70	1.04
3. The Arabic language is much better than English.	3.11	1.87
4. I feel uncomfortable when hearing Omanis speaking English to each other.	1.82	1.95
5. At times I am afraid that by using English I will become like a foreigner.	1.53	0.98
6. When using English, I do not feel that I am an Omani anymore.	1.30	0.63
7. I should not have to learn English.	1.19	0.44

*On a five-point scale ranging from 1 = "not at all" to 5 = "most important".
**On a five-point scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree".

Table 3

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on the student teachers' ratings of the importance of various subjects in TEFL education

	M	S
*TEFL Education		
1. English language skills	4.34	.83
2. Practice Teaching	4.15	1.00
3. Phonetics & Phonemics	3.93	1.03
4. Educational Psychology	3.78	1.06
5. Instructional Technology	3.76	.91
6. Contrastive Linguistics	3.70	1.04
7. L2 Methodology	3.48	.93
8. Applied Linguistics	3.46	.95
9. English Literature	3.46	.88
10. First & Second Language Acquisition	3.43	1.06
11. Computer-Assisted Language Learning	3.39	1.05
12. History of English Language	3.28	.96
13. Research Methods	3.22	.86
14. English Culture	3.20	1.03
*Language Skills		
1. Grammar	4.76	.61
2. Speaking	4.63	.78
3. Writing	4.28	.86
4. Reading	4.22	.86
5. Listening	3.98	1.02

* On a five-point scale ranging from 1 = "not at all" to 5 = "very important".

USING FEEDBACK AND REFLECTION AS TOOLS IN BRIDGING THE THEORY-PRACTICE LINK IN LANGUAGE TEACHER TRAINING AT THE PRIMARY LEVEL

Gayle Whitson and Peter Bodycott

Abstract

The importance of providing pre-service training teachers with a solid understanding of the language theories which influence and affect the teaching of language in the classroom has never really been questioned (Widdowson, 1984). However, finding an appropriate balance between providing theoretical knowledge and practical hands-on experiences has been a continual challenge for the English Primary Methods Team at the National Institute of Education. This paper will examine the "theory and practice" issue at two levels: 1) maintaining the balance within the course programme and 2) the link between the teacher training site and the schools.

The paper will go on to provide a brief description of the Postgraduate Diploma In Education (Primary) English Language training package and highlight the course components which have been incorporated to maximise the use of feedback and reflection. Three types of data, oral, written and video have been collected for analysis. Initial findings reveal differences in postgraduate trainees written and oral feedback concerning the degree of transfer-ability between programme knowledge and school practices. Students also express greater methodological confidence at the lower primary level.

Introduction

A continuing fascination, some may prefer frustration, among teacher educators is the development of tertiary training methods and programmes which facilitate the transference of the knowledge and practices acquired in teacher preparation programmes to the classroom setting.

It is believed that tertiary training programmes should engender within the trainees an understanding of the principles upon which their tertiary courses are based. The trainees, in turn, can then stimulate them naturally into their own

classroom practices. This however is not always the case. Students who pass the various forms of assessment within the course have been heard discussing, and observed practising, methods which in extreme cases run contrary to those presented during the programme of study. Adding insult to injury, while responding positively to written course evaluations, the same trainees when interviewed, following teaching practice, failed to see the link between their preparation course and the real world of the classroom. For example, in response to the following end-of-course evaluation question; "What are the main strengths of the course?" students replied:

Student 1 : The course was interesting and enjoyable especially the hands-on tutorials sessions.

Student 2 : The tutors were very helpful in giving us down-to-earth suggestions. Very adequate resources and readings are provided.

Student 3 : I was surprised by the changes in the teaching of English in the primary schools. I gained many new, up-to-date methods of language teaching from the course.

(PGDE (P) Course Evaluations, 1990)

whilst during post-teaching practice interview sessions the same students responded:

Interviewer: "Did you have a good teaching practice experience?"

Student 3 : "Fantastic, I just love teaching, my supervisor was so supportive. I had a really good teaching practice."

Interviewer: "Did you get to try out the methods and ideas presented in the course?"

Student 3 : "Oh no. The school isn't doing process writing and DRTA and I was in an upper level, so I didn't get to try out SBA or LEA. But I really had a great time teaching."

Student 2 : "No, not really, I did some role play - the children loved it and my supervisor was very impressed. The principal wanted us to use a lot of group work."

Interviewer: "Do you think the ideas and methods presented during the course will be relevant for your future teaching?"

Student 1 : "Well, sort of, the principal really wanted me to stay on in his schools, but he doesn't have any positions - he is trying to get me posted to a school near his which follows a similar approach to the curriculum. Maybe not, but I still thought the course was really interesting and I learned a lot."

(PGDE (P) Interviews, 1990)

The common denominator, in both written and interview data, is that the course content is enjoyable and enlightening. Students perceive the course as innovative and from their readings, feel it provides a comprehensive coverage of the current trends in language teaching. Undergraduate evaluations of similar courses conducted by the same tutors, revealed that 90% of teacher trainees "thought that the course was very useful in their classroom teaching experience" (Chew, Mah, Whitson, & Tan, 1989, p. 21). In fact, the teaching of English methods course received the top rating amongst core curriculum studies courses offered in the teacher training programme (Chew et al. 1989; Mah & Chew, 1988). The course content is directly based upon and supports the Ministry of Education's language syllabus, which advocates a communicative, thematic approach to language teaching with an emphasis on process learning. Yet despite similar theoretical foundations and favourable evaluations, the links between teacher training and practice are yet to be explicitly realised.

These responses typify the majority of postgraduates evaluations and interviews conducted on a language teacher preparation course at the National Institute of Education, Singapore in 1990. As a result the programme of instruction was modified to meet the needs of the students and bridge the gap between teacher training and teaching practice.

Changes in Teacher Training

The improvement of pre-service teacher training courses isn't new. Teacher educators have available to them a wealth of research from which problems in training can be analyzed and approached. In the context of the present study, changes were made from an informed position. Past research was analyzed for practical and cultural relevancy. Papers were identified which dealt specifically with our research problem. "How can we as teacher trainers assist students in

transferring training knowledge and experience to school practice?" Underpinning this problem is the question; "How can we strengthen the theory-practice link?" which is vital in making the transfer a reality.

Theory into Practice

Widdowson (1984) uses the term "idealized" and "non-idealized" when discussing the appropriacy of directly translating language theory research into classroom practice. Idealized refers to the research lab where the researcher has the ability to control and isolate specific variables in order to test learning hypotheses. The classroom is referred to as the non-idealized, fairly unpredictable environment where the teacher must deal with any number of variables (eg. learning styles, different abilities, interruptions, etc.) simultaneously. Therefore, as teacher trainers, any attempt to apply theoretical research findings directly to pedagogical techniques without taking account of the differences which exists in the classroom setting, is seen to be ineffective and professionally highly suspect.

However does the trainee teacher possess the critical reflection skills necessary for analyzing the similarities and differences between the idealized and non-idealized settings? From transcripts it would seem that many trainees tend to compartmentalize their experiences into either teacher training or real-world survival teaching pedagogy. This suggests a priori assumptions about the role of their teacher preparation course, as written evaluations are carried out prior to teaching practice. As postgraduates, these beliefs may also be reflective of their graduate studies programmes. From interviews, following teaching practice, trainees discussed their attempts to replicate wholesale the methods and techniques practised at the institution, in the classroom. Of these the vast majority quickly became discouraged and abandoned their newly acquired theory and practice knowledge in favour of more traditional classroom practices. Although individuals responded differently and the transcripts exemplify the uniqueness of the trainee responses based upon their specific school contexts, they do share at a general level aspects relating to the course and its contents.

Subject-Content Knowledge Base

The beliefs and practices of trainee teachers indicate a great deal about the personalities of the trainees (Cruikshank 1987 Schon, 1987; Zeichner & Liston, 1987) and their subject matter knowledge base (Shulman, 1987). These two aspects provide the theoretical and pedagogical foundation for changes in course structure

and were seen to provide the link between the training course and the trainees' teaching practice. Shulman's (1987) work, at the secondary level, infers that subject or content knowledge base acts as a comprehensive catalyst from which teachers develop.

Teachers and trainees, at the primary level, it is believed need to establish knowledge in the specific subject or content component they are to teach. In addition, it is believed that they need to be able to recognise that this information can be transmitted in a variety of ways. This will further ensure that the individual pupil's needs are met with appropriate teaching strategies. This knowledge base provides the trainee with greater understanding and control over the material they are teaching, thus facilitating the spontaneous adjustment to the delivery or selection of the methods and techniques to be used. It is essential then, that trainee language teachers' possess knowledge of the function and forms of language and also feel confident about their ability to transform or transmit this content knowledge base to pupils of differing abilities.

A related feature is the ability to reflect critically on issues which arise in the context of the transmission process. A theoretical knowledge base empowers the teacher with a foundation for providing the "why" response or dimension necessary in developing a reflective practitioner (Cruikshank, 1987). In the context of training language teachers, trainees are introduced to a number of major learning and language theories. Through a practical examination of the related theoretical implications, trainees derive their own theories and beliefs about how children best learn language. Through such an approach teachers have a theoretical orientation from which to approach and evaluate the teaching and learning context (Widdowson, 1984).

From a related pedagogical perspective the reflective teacher practitioner model (Cruikshank, 1987; Schon, 1987; Zeichner & Liston, 1987) greatly influenced the reconceptualization of the course. For the construction of functional understanding, a knowledge base of the approaches used in English language teaching must also be accompanied by reflection on pedagogical practices, or effective delivery within the teaching and learning context.

Critical Reflection

Critical reflection encompasses the ability to make informed comparisons between the ideal demonstration of methods, techniques, and strategies as presented in the pre-service methods course, and how those same instructional procedures

may be adapted in an authentic classroom situation. Students need to develop the ability to systematically analyze situations, instructional actions and learners's reaction to gauge effectiveness of practices being implemented. In other words, thinking on one's feet (Schon, 1983). Critical reflection arises out of sound theoretical and pedagogical base; being able to perceive (anticipate) the variables in the teaching and learning context from a multi-dimensional perspective.

Developing the ability to critically reflect encompasses the provision and attainment of appropriate constructive feedback. Feedback provides the trainee teacher with an outsider's perspective of observable teaching behaviour. Feedback can be gathered from the learner's perspective, an experienced teacher's perspective or from an equal novice would-be teacher. Feedback, like evaluation, is without judgement. It doesn't suggest right or wrong. Feedback is continuous, and may occur at any point in the learning process. Constructive feedback consists of observations made in teaching and learning situations. Observable data is brought up for discussion and exploration which strengthens trainee teachers' beliefs and understandings of practice.

The Study

Based upon the student responses and an examination of the pertinent literature, extensive changes were made to the structure of the English language postgraduate teacher preparation programme. At the National Institute of Education, Singapore, curriculum studies in Primary English language teaching are conducted at undergraduate and postgraduate levels. This paper focuses upon the programme developments within the twenty-week Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) Primary (P) course and aims at bridging the gap between trainee teacher preparation and actual teaching practice.

Graduate students from Singapore and neighbouring universities apply and are interviewed for placement in the PGDE (P) programme. Their degrees are from diverse fields such as science, economics, business administration and maths. Few come with language or literature backgrounds. Unlike undergraduate degree and diploma programmes PGDE students receive no English academic studies.

Building upon the students' knowledge of the English language and their years as a student, the curriculum studies (CS) programme aims at developing their content knowledge base through demonstration and reflective feedback. The course delivery is structured upon a one hour lecture input session followed by a two hour practical or seminar discussion tutorial. The lecture input allows the content and

theory building component of the course, while the tutorials extend their understanding by providing a stimulated context for teacher demonstrations, student demonstrations, collaborative problem-solving group tasks, and videotaped critiques of actual lessons carried out in primary school classrooms. It is through the tutorial component of the course structure, that the students come to experience the intersection of content, theory-based knowledge, pedagogical practice. Students are seen to be learning through practical experience.

The following tutorial strategies were woven into the existing course structure providing a firm foundation of language theory and practice, which engaged students in the processes of constructive reflection and feedback.

Demonstration Lessons by Tutors

Although trainees bring years of prior classroom experience with them as learners, for many, the approaches and methods used in the teaching of language have changed quite dramatically since they were last in the primary classroom. The lessons and learning experiences our students recall, no longer serve as appropriate models to follow or refer back to. The students' existing schemata is seen to be in need of up-dating and reshaping based upon contemporary understanding of language teaching and learning.

For each language method or teaching strategy discussed in our programme, PGDE (P) students are given a complete lesson demonstration by the tutor. This demonstration lesson serves as a holistic framework which students can discuss specific aspects of the lesson and the underlying theory. For example, the teacher's role, the use of questioning, the lesson objectives, and the procedures followed. The demonstration lesson also provides a multitude of incidental demonstrations concerning management techniques, use of gestures and teacher organisation. In other words, trainees are provided a first-hand learning experience. This learning experience becomes the base point for comparing their own simulated lesson demonstrations.

Student Demonstration Lesson, Video Reteaching and Written Critique

Following the tutor's demonstration, follow-up discussion and analyses, the students in small groups, prepare a simulated lesson using similar resources and procedures. These lessons are presented to the entire tutorial group and followed by similar constructive reflection and feedback examination. It should be noted that

the emphasis is always upon constructive feedback and as such comments are framed in the positive. Based on the feedback provided by the peers and tutor the lesson is then retaught in a microteaching laboratory. This lesson is video taped allowing further reflection and examination. That is, students are required to review the video and to write evaluation of their performance with specific reference to the suggestions given during the feedback session.

This teach-and-reteach strategy assists in refining instructional teaching competencies, and in developing the trainees skills of critical reflection and feedback. The following transcript (Figure 1) is taken from one group's written critique which includes examples of the feedback provided.

Figure 1
Extract LEA Lesson Critique

The lesson was a language learning approach which focused upon the topic of "fruit sculpting". The intended audience a Primary three class.

Specific Language Objectives:

1) Procedural action words (roll, press, cut)
2) Descriptive words relating to shape, size, colour and texture of fruit (smooth, round, spiky, etc)

Lesson Procedures

1. The pupils are to be divided into four groups in which they have to sculpt two fruits.
2. One pupil from each group is to act as a secretary in which they have to take down the steps regarding how the pupils sculpt the two fruits.
3. During the recording the secretary records the action verbs and any descriptive words used.

Feedback on Instructional Procedures

Our tutorial class commented that the secretaries will not be able to experience the fruit sculpting as they had to take down the steps. Furthermore, the secretarial role needs to be carried out by a more competent pupil, and be closely monitored by the teacher. The group suggested the class be trained in taking dictation, and emphasised the links between this and the teaching of spelling. The group pointed out that some pupils may not necessarily talk during the experience.

We were also quizzed about what was to be done with the notes (steps) recorded by the secretaries.

The group praised the opportunities provided for the children to spell out words like "sausage" and "conical". Another positive strategy was the way Li Li (teacher) encouraged the class to listen and respond to their classmates' observations.

Feedback on the Language Objectives

The tutorial class felt that our lesson plan was hanging in the air and didn't fully explore that theme. It was suggested that our lesson plan could be part of a larger thematic unit on "food we eat". The term "fruit" could be a sub-theme. Our objectives could also be broadened by including discourse markers/adverbs like finally, first, then, next, after, and so forth.

The group praised Mazlina (teacher) for taking the opportunity to make use of words like "pinch" "press" "poke" and "roll", preparing the students for the activity ahead and to provide reinforcement to the language objective on action verbs.

Feedback on Teacher-Pupil Interaction

Mazlina was able to bring about much oral language, and that provided the foundation for a meaningful dictation experience although they pointed out that there were too many "OK's" in her speech. They felt the pace set for the reading was appropriate although her pronunciation of "t" (torn) for "thorn" needs some attention.

Guided Video-Viewing Lessons

Videotaped lessons of actual classroom teachers provided trainees with the opportunity to examine lessons from the Singaporean context. These tapes transported the trainees into the local classrooms without leaving the campus. Furthermore, the taped lessons provided the authentic contextual features of class size, physical arrangement of the room, and spontaneous audience responses. Trainees vicariously experienced the multi-dimensional teaching role which the teacher was called upon to play.

In preparation for viewing the authentic videotaped classroom lessons, trainees were given a copy of the teacher's lessons plan. The lesson plans were examined in pairs, discussing the procedural steps in relation to the stated lesson goals and objectives. They were then divided into small groups and each group was given a video-viewing guide sheet and assigned a specific observational task. Observations made during the viewing were discussed in a follow-up feedback session.

Trainees were encouraged to reflect upon the principles and procedures of language learning identifiable in the lesson. Their constructive comments served as a basis for discussion concerning positive teaching practices, and areas where the effectiveness of instruction could be improved. Critical reflection skills were prompted through in-depth discussion of specific areas identified for improvement. This involved brainstorming alternative instructional means and the possible implications.

For example, in a video which involved the "solving the mystery" activity the lesson went well overtime. Trainees discussed where the teacher could have saved time. A number of possible procedural alternatives were discussed. General comments such as "the activity was a good one" were analyzed, reflected upon and developed into more concise statements such as, "the more involved the children are, the richer the language experience. If the activity is allowed to run overtime, then you have less time for oral discussion and text development."

This type of tutorial activity, while building opportunities to use critical reflection and feedback skills, also provided an important induction into the world of teaching. The experience gives training teachers their first glimpse of how the idealised methodology gets translated into practice in the school setting.

Process Writing Assignment

This major course requirement involved the trainees in developing, using a process-oriented approach, one child's selected writing piece. The one-to-one nature of the assignment allows the trainee to put into practice, with a child, the procedures which have been demonstrated, discussed and analyzed. The responsibility for setting up the learning environment and the teaching strategies, is the trainees alone. Through the assignment, the trainee experiences the frustrations and successes of developing an individualised programme based upon the needs of one child. The assignment is viewed as rigorous and challenging by the trainees.

Perfect mastery of instructional competencies is not the focus but rather the development of the trainees' evaluatory and critical reflection skills.

Trainees are required to tape their interactions and conferences with the child. These tapes are, in the course of the assignment, reviewed by the trainee, analyzed and reflected upon. The students' ability to critically analyze their own teaching in relation to the child's needs and theoretical intent becomes then the focus of the final written section of their report.

The following extracts taken from several trainees' reports highlight the critical reflection process and related learning gleaned from this particular experience.

Assignment Extracts

"I used open-ended questions to invite more responses than monosyllabic answers. Some questions yielded answers that could be incorporated in the composition but some were not as informative. In response to the question "What part of the story do you feel could be improved?" my student replied that he was not particularly satisfied with the story outline, though he was quite willing to try it out. This was in contrast to his encouraging responses during prewriting and drafting stages. This indicates the child is reading his latest drafts like a writer and can see shortcoming in his story's development"

(Li Li, 1991)

"Regrettably, my peer revision session did not turn out as well as expected. At times, I prompted him too much, insisting that he reply. It was only at the end of the session, while listening to the tape that I discovered my student had never done process writing before. I must learn to listen more closely, and get to know the student better, before asking him to do things"

(Kitty, 1990)

I managed to tackle the first two areas which directly related to the story content, OK. However, I felt less than confident following-up on the this area relating to leads, although I made mention of it when I shared a book 'Ace Dragon Ltd' by Russell Hoban which had a different introduction than "once upon a time"

(Heng Seow, 1991)

"I learnt that process writing, an interactive task, demands time and perseverance from both the teacher and pupil. The teacher's main job is to impart the skills of writing whilst encouraging the pupil to take more than one examination of his draft. It's rewarding to witness visibly a better piece of writing emerge at the end of the day"

(Teck Koon, 1991)

Discussion

The PGDE (P) course is actually still in its infancy stage. The changes made to the course content and components are by no means finished. The restructuring process must be ongoing, if we are to continue and to try and meet the needs of our training teachers and the demands of the school and educational community. The course remains responsive to the feedback gleamed from the course participants. Teacher trainers it is felt, must be receptive to the feedback cycle (change process) and look for opportunities to implement and monitor changes made to the course content.

The PGDE (P) students are a unique cohort to study in the area of teacher training. As university degree holders, these trainees come with a variety of academic specializations. Many of which have acquired a depth of content knowledge but no exposure or need for practical application. For many of the trainees, this subject knowledge bears little relationship to the primary school curriculum. Their prior educational experience at the university then is quite different from the expectations at the teacher training institution where application, and mastery of pedagogical competencies is their new future.

Whether this prior experience affects their ability to perceive the relevance of theory into practice is an area for future investigation. In 1992 a monitoring strategy will be implemented which will provide a profile of the trainees personal case study history. By profiling we will be better able to understand the relationship of prior knowledge and new learning experiences, as well as to assess individual teacher trainee's development and progress.

Other areas of concern which may have a possible effect on the perceived relevance of the training, arose from analysis of the 1991 interview transcripts and trainer notes. During the interview it was noted that students appeared tense, preoccupied, not interested in discussing (elaborating) the applicability of the course content and future teaching experience. Students when later questioned stated that they were worried about their impending exams and the fact that the

exam schedule immediately followed the teaching practice experience. This didn't allow sufficient time for them to revise for the exams. This concern led to a change in the timing of the post teaching practice interviews. In 1992 interviews will be held during May and June following the trainees' appointment to schools. It is anticipated that this change will allow students the opportunity to settle into and establish their initial teaching routines prior to the interviews.

At this time written evaluation data reveals the following:

1) trainees found the teach/reteach, lesson demonstrations and writing project most helpful. They gained most in the areas of the planning, communication and technical instructional procedures. These course components gave students the opportunity to put theory into practice.

2) trainees expressed more confidence in the methods advocated for the lower primary classroom, such as LEA, MLEA, and SBA. Teacher trainers feel this could be a result of more procedurally directed methods in the lower primary, which use specific teaching resources such as pointers, big books, mahjong sheets.

3) trainees desired more opportunities to experience the teach/reteach microteaching experience.

The above findings, while only partial, are quite encouraging and provide insight for further course development. Specifically, attention needs to focus upon why students appear more confident in lower primary methodology, and, given the time constraints of the course, how trainees can experience the video reteaching and written critique procedure to a greater extent.

What remains to be determined through follow-up interview is how successful the course changes have been in assisting teacher trainees to bridge the gap between the training site experience and the school site. To what extent the students have applied the skills of critical reflection and feedback in their daily school routine, and whether their practice reflects solid theoretical and pedagogical grounding.

Conclusion

Worldwide, concern is being expressed over the quality of education that children receive. Many look to the training and preparation of teachers for answers to a multitude of related questions. Therefore, the desire to improve the quality of training that teacher trainees receive is of international interest.

This paper has described how one team of teacher trainers re-examined the effectiveness of their methods course content in preparing new training teachers for their future responsibilities in the classroom. The paper examined two main course objectives, namely 1) how to increase the transferability of training knowledge to the school site and 2) assisting students to bridge the gap between theory and practice. Three factors appear to be key elements in achieving these course objectives, they are: building the content-theory knowledge base, developing skills in critical reflection, and the ability to use feedback. The paper then described the components targeted at providing trainees with maximum opportunity to use and develop their skills of reflection and feedback. Central to the course and related components was the constant reiteration upon language learning. Trainees were constantly encouraged to examine teaching and teachers' practices for underlying theory, whilst matching this with their own beliefs about language teaching and learning. The interactive nature of the course components, with the emphasis upon functional communication and involvement, provided the teacher trainers with invaluable insights into their trainees developing theory of language learning. From these insights the trainers were better able to reconstruct a preparation course based upon trainees' needs.

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'PROCESS vs. PRODUCT' IN LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION - SHIFTING THE FOCUS OF COURSE DESIGN

Ray Parker

Introduction

Processes and products are intimately linked. This paper does not set out to sing the praises of the one to the exclusion of the other but rather to propose and describe an adjustment of emphasis in the design of language teacher education programmes.

The paper bases most of its data and propositions on that area of language teacher education concerned with the initial preparation of English native-speaker teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. It does so not because it is the writer's belief that this area of language teacher education is in some way more important than others but simply that as a model it has been thoroughly questioned and developed over the last twenty years or so.

The assumption has been made that up to now this sector of language teacher education has been heavily conditioned by a product-centred approach and that our recognition that language teaching takes place in a fast-changing world requires that we question the wisdom of such an approach.

It would be as well to begin by seeking a definition of these two aspects of teacher education.

The Collins Cobuild Dictionary defines *process* as follows:

"A process is a series of actions which are carried out in order to achieve a particular result, e.g. *It has been a long process getting this information.*"

The same dictionary defines *product* as follows:

"Something or someone that is a product of a particular situation or process exists or has particular qualities as a result of that situation or process, e.g. *The uniformity of the dancers was the product of hours of training.*"

At this stage it would be sensible to notice some of the words in these definitions and examples which collocate with our two areas of interest. With 'process' we have the adjective 'long' and with 'product' the associated nouns 'uniformity' and 'training'.

The distinction we are making, then, between process-focused and product-focused courses is essentially the same as Henry Widdowson's well known distinction between teacher education and teacher training:

> "In general terms, the distinction between education and training can be formulated in the following way. Training is a process of preparation towards the achievement of a range of outcomes which are specified in advance. This involves the acquisition of goal-oriented behaviour which is more or less formulaic in character and whose capacity for accommodation to novelty is, therefore, very limited. Training, in this view, is directed at providing solutions to a set of predictable problems and sets a premium on unreflecting expertise. It is dependent on the stability of existing states of affairs since it assumes that future situations will be predictable replicas of those in the past. Education on the other hand is not predicated on predictability in this way. It provides for situations which cannot be accommodated into preconceived patterns of response but which require a reformulation of ideas and the modification of established formulae. It focuses, therefore, not on the application of ready-made problem-solving techniques but on the critical appraisal of the relationship between problem and solution as a matter of continuing enquiry and of adaptable practice."
>
> Widdowson (1990 p.62)

Teacher training, then, is product-focused. It is evaluated in terms of the degree of success it achieves in delivering a pre-determined product which matches a historical model of language teaching needs. Teacher education, on the other hand, is process-focused. The process, here, being valued for its own sake as the means to equip teachers to deal with the unpredictable as well as evaluating and developing their response to the predicted.

An Overview of the Paper

What this paper sets out to do then, is, having defined process and product focusing in the context of language teacher education, to describe some of the modifications we have been making at the TESOL Centre at Sheffield City Polytechnic over the last six years to a popular and successful product-focused course, changes which when viewed in their totality amount to a shift in focus away from the product and towards the process involved. The changes have not finished yet - indeed continuous modification seems to be an almost inevitable result of process-focusing. The changes include both fine-tuning to established procedures and more fundamental revisions and I will try to categorise them as changes to course content, fresh approaches to the evaluation of course participants and modifications to teaching practice components. I will go on finally to summarise the differences in course design of initial teacher education that, for me, typify, and thus help to identify process as opposed to product-focusing. Throughout I will be suggesting that product-focusing implies a belief that an identifiable product can be prepared for an identifiable market and that process-focusing implies the recognition that the demands made upon language teachers are continuously changing and, what's more, changing in ways that are largely unpredictable.

An Anecdote

Part of the process of my being a language teacher educator was my attendance over 10 years ago now at a seminar in Bristol entitled "The Subordination of Teaching to Learning in the Case of the Silent Way" (For a fuller description of this event see McNeill 1982). The seminar was led by the late Caleb Gattegno, the originator of the Silent Way, who chose to demonstrate the methodology to a sub-group of the teachers present by giving a two hour lesson in Arabic. I won't describe the details of the lesson but would say that after it was over he invited questions and comments. One brave teacher pointed out the obvious, and that was that the whole two hour lesson had been quite ex-tempore - Dr Gattegno had been making it up as he went along - it had been - horror of horrors - a totally unprepared lesson! Dr Gattegno appeared to go white with rage - I will not quote his response exactly but a fair paraphrase might be:-

> "You call yourself a teacher? You are a fool! How old do you think I am? I am 67. I have been preparing that lesson for 67 years. How long do you spend preparing your lessons?"

Dr Gattegno believed in and understood the value of process in teacher education and if I gained nothing else from that seminar I came away beginning to realise that no student teacher comes to a teacher training centre without a life-time's experience of education. The process does not begin with initial teacher training - it continues and teacher educators really ought to realise this. But above all the process must not end with initial teacher training - it must continue and this is something that teacher educators must help new teachers to realise for themselves.

Process - Focused Components of the Sheffield Course

Extended Language Learning Experience

The usefulness of language teachers also being language learners is well attested in a number of articles (Lowe 1987, Rinvolucri 1988, Waters et al 1990). All teachers on our courses are now required to spend part of the first three weeks of the four week course learning a new foreign language. In our case we currently use Norwegian - a language sufficiently exotic for us to feel confident both that no course participant is likely to be anything but a beginner and that no-one is likely to confuse the purpose of the exercise by imagining that we really feel they should learn that particular language. They have a total of thirteen 40 minute lessons in the language - a significant proportion of the total contact hours of the four week course and in addition they are required to attend a final individual 10 minute oral test. This language learning process serves several purposes, but one purpose it does not have, as mentioned before is to teach Norwegian to our student teachers. Few, in any case, have any motivation to learn this language and only one out of the hundreds who have been subjected to this experience has, to my knowledge, ever visited Norway.

What the process, which starts on day two of the course does achieve is to give all the rest of the input of the course a firm reference point. All the theory (a loaded word this for those essential ingredients that help to lift the process from the domain of technical training to professional education) finds exemplification in the on-going language learning experience. Topics such as motivation, second language acquisition theory, methodological variations, psycho- and sociolinguistics, discourse analysis etc. all make more sense if they can be related to "yesterday's Norwegian lesson". Waters et al. (1990) describing a rather more limited application of this sub-process come to similar conclusions:

> "In the later stages of the course, the LLE functions as a convenient point of reference - a shared experience that can be referred back to. As the course progresses, it is inevitable that the link between the beginning and 'what we are doing now' can become somewhat remote. The LLE can help to re-establish that connection."
>
> Waters et al (1990:308)

A second obvious purpose is that the prolonged experience of being a language learner dramatically increases teachers' sympathy for and sensitivity towards the language learning difficulties experienced by their own learners, both in concurrent teaching practice situations and in later "real life" classroom encounters.

Finally, and of course, there could be much more to be said about the values and inevitably the disadvantages of ELLE's, there is a sense in which the encouragement of relatively risk-free critical reflection does much to convince the teachers concerned that they are not at the beginning of a process but rather well embarked upon it. The ELLE gives teachers the opportunity to recapture and re-experience the phenomena associated with being a language learner and above all accords some considerable status to the teachers' reflections. This is experiential learning at its best - but more than that - various devices can be set up to ensure that such experience is not simply "had" but is also "learnt from". The net result is that teachers can gently be manoeuvred into actually valuing their own insights and accepting some responsibility for their own development. As Waters et al put it:

> "The potential restraint of a body of 'official' input is absent.....As a result, there is an opportunity for the participant to be less concerned with finding the 'right' answer, (a product), and more with identifying the personally significant insight." (focusing on process)
>
> Waters et al (1990:307)

(My additions in brackets)

<u>The Journals System</u>

A journal is a cumulative record - in our case a guided record - of some aspect of the educational process being experienced by the teachers on our courses. It is essentially a diary, though since in our case we choose to look at and assess the journals the term diary, which suggests something essentially private, is avoided in favour of terms like journal or log. More than anything though, a journal is a vehicle for recording reflections on experience in which you can do a number of things:- You can simply record experience or you can reflect on your personal

reaction to that experience or the reactions of others, or you can do your best to record, reflect upon and evaluate these experiences. Even the first, apparently minimalist approach is, in my view, valuable. The mere act of recording experience, if done both regularly and in an unprejudiced way is a powerful reinforcer of that experience. If, however, the additional elements of reflection and self-evaluation are encouraged, the journal becomes a very valuable tool indeed in the process of education.

In our case we impose the keeping of three separate journals on our teachers. They are:

1. The foreign language learning journal

2. The teaching journal

3. The materials compilation journal

They are guided journals in the sense that teachers completing them are provided with headings designed to channel their reflections constructively and incrementally. I have prepared a hand-out with sample pages from these journals. When the course is over, the journals are submitted for assessment by course tutors and then, most importantly, returned to their owners. There is no tutor intervention until the course is over. In fact, in the case of the teaching journal, tutor-feedback from observed lessons is actually withheld until the course participant declares that they have completed the relevant entry to their journal.

One minor aim, then, of the journals is to provide items of assessment. They are assessed in terms of the quality of the insights recorded by their writers and, perhaps more importantly, the evidence that they provide of attitudinal change, self-realised progress, awareness and developing exploitation of strengths and the ability both to identify problems and propose and implement solutions for them.

A far more important aim, however, is the development of a frame of mind, a professional stance of reflection and the nurturing of an ability to gain efficiently from experience. What we are really looking for is a recognition of the value of 'post-paration' as opposed to preparation. The harnessing in a constructive, forward looking way of the power of hindsight. Anyone who has had contact with teachers on teacher education courses will confirm the degree to which Parkinson's law applies itself to the preparation of lessons. In other words, given an hour to prepare a lesson, the lesson will take an hour to prepare. Given a day to prepare the same lesson, the preparation will expand into a full day's work. The

time and energy that lesson preparation can soak up can be truly terrifying but, nevertheless, one thing remains true. We know infinitely more about a lesson after we have given it than we can ever know before. It is logical, therefore, to demand of our teachers that they try to shift the emphasis of their investment of time and energy towards post-paration rather than allow preparation to monopolise their efforts. This is, of course, a long-term rather than a short-term strategy - a process rather than a product focused view and it requires the gradual implementation of quite a severe professional self-discipline.

The success of using journals in teacher education is well recorded in the literature but I would single out a recent article by Scott Thornbury (Thornbury 1991) in which he analyses and notes the usefulness of teaching journals and makes statements such as the following:

> "There also seemed to be a correlation between the capacity to reflect and the effectiveness of the teaching - which is consistent with the view that practice and reflection on practice are inseparable elements of a developmental spiral."
>
> (Thornbury 1991:141)

He also reports partial success in the development of long-term professional processes:

> "One trainee was so enthusiastic that she now plans to continue log-keeping in her post-course teaching."
>
> (Thornbury 1991:141)

Language learning journals are also well represented in the literature of teacher education. The success of their use is well recorded in for example Waters et al and, slightly indirectly, in a most fascinating chapter of Wilga Rivers' book, "Communicating naturally in a second language" - Chapter 13 which should be compulsory reading for all language teachers.

It is the materials compilation journal, however, of the three, which is arguably the most innovative. Many teacher education courses have a materials production component and it is our feeling at Sheffield that such components present course participants with possibly the greatest risk that they will encounter in their language teaching careers, of undertaking an exclusively product focused activity. The MCJ was developed to counter this tendency and to impose a process orientation on to the activity of creating and then using materials. We are regularly reminded of the importance of our interaction with materials. In a recent article

Marion Geddes encourages language teachers to consider not just what materials overtly say to students but also what they covertly suggest and she ends her thoughts with:

> "I know that the worksheets and hand-outs I produce these days have lots of room for improvement. But at least I try to prepare them giving thought not only to the content, but to the 'suggestions' they may make to my students."
>
> (Geddes 1992:30)

The materials compilation journal, then is designed to orient teachers towards just this degree of continuing concern for the effectiveness and impact that even the lowliest hand-out may have.

The Teaching Component

This is, of course, arguably the very heart of any teacher education system and there are a number of process focused measures that we have taken in this area. I would like to describe them under three headings:

The provision of feedback

The means of assessing an individual's response to the teaching component

The modes of teaching employed

Feedback

At a recent meeting of teacher training course moderators a lengthy discussion took place about the wording of a recommendation that was to be made to the examination board for whom they worked. They had been discussing the provision of feedback from observing tutors on the kind of initial course I have been describing and the debate centred upon the choice of adjective to be put before the word feedback. There were various enthusiasms for "immediate", "early" and "prompt". It is of course part of the received wisdom of our profession that in any situation involving some kind of test, the speedier the feedback the more satisfactory it is for those concerned. Part of the legacy of behaviourism is the almost unchallenged belief that the sooner feedback occurs the more likely it is that

some desirable behaviour modification will take place. In the case of observed teaching, however, there is an ironical sense in which immediate feedback from an observing tutor (or early or prompt) is a signal to the teacher that a complete product has been evaluated and a line drawn under it. There is a strong case to be made for delaying feedback, allowing time for reflection or post-paration on the part of the teacher. In our case feedback is provided on the day after the teaching event. This allows a number of things to happen. Firstly, the teacher can record their reflections in the teaching journal unprejudiced by the external observations of the tutor. Secondly, the teacher is given time and a suitable perspective in which to see the lesson as a component of a larger process rather than as an isolated event. Thirdly the teacher has an enhanced opportunity to prepare to take a contributory role during the feedback session rather than a receptive one - in other words the teacher gets an opportunity to be a generator of feedback rather than merely a consumer of it.

Through such a process the teacher is encouraged to develop their own analytical skills, their own judgements about both weaknesses and strengths, and to do so to some extent autonomously so that the wisdom and expertise of the observing tutor comes as the icing on the cake rather than appearing to be the sole valid judgement of the lesson.

Typically, now, feedback sessions start with the teacher revealing the insights they have gained from that particular lesson to the tutor, with the tutor often only intervening to negotiate with the teacher further or more elaborate insights where such an intervention seems necessary and appropriate. Under this system the general quality of feedback sessions has improved enormously and possibly more importantly, tutors have been able to intervene at a much deeper level than had previously been the case. Technical matters tend to be quickly and effectively dealt with if the teacher has recognised them, considered them and can suggest further action or modification to future lesson planning and execution and tutors thus find themselves released into far more valuable areas like suggesting a modification of a teachers overall critical "tone" - many teachers are, for example, unduly negative in their self criticisms, a few are self-congratulatory to an unwarranted degree. Delayed feedback procedures clear the way to such fundamental adjustments on the teacher's part and provide opportunities to negotiate routes to consolidation or change as the circumstances dictate.

In this way the lesson itself ceases to be a product to be evaluated by the observing tutor but becomes part of a process - a process with various components including:

1. preparation

2. optional pre-execution guidance from a tutor

3. the lesson

4. reflection

5. feedback

and instead of assuming massive importance on its own it fits as an important component within a more important and larger, replicable process. For a fuller description of the processes and benefits of delayed feedback you might like to look at my article in the Teacher Trainer. (Parker 1991)

Assessing and Grading the Response of Individuals to the Teaching Component

During a four week course of this sort each teacher can be involved in up to 11 separate teaching events. They could, of course, all be observed and graded separately and, indeed, our practice was to feed such tutor awarded grades into a computer which was then entrusted with the task of 'objectively' weighting the marks depending on the nature of the teaching event and its position in the sequence, and then to average the results out in order to give a final grade for the teaching component of the course.

We found ourselves increasingly ill-at-ease with this number-crunching approach to the labelling of the teaching qualities of human beings.

We have replaced it now with a grades board which meets formally at the end of the course and is composed of all the tutors who have observed any of the teaching events. Each student is discussed in depth and final grades arrived at in a way that allows for consideration to be given to the quality of insights reported from feedback sessions and evidence of self-realised development during the teaching event sequence rather than depending on the teacher's performance in particular lessons, however important that may be.

This system allows tutors to exercise their judgement in a larger sense than in simple performance evaluation and encourages us to stand back from a particular "product" in order to assess how a particular teacher is interacting with a longer process. Final grades, we now feel, are a better indicator of future performance arrived at, as they are, in this holistic, collaborative way, than the accumulations of segmental gradings were.

As an additional safeguard to ensure that final grades are reflections of success with the process rather than indicators of peoples' approximations towards products, the grade arrived at in this way only accounts for a fifty per cent contribution to the final teaching grade - the remaining fifty percent being contributed by the teaching and the materials compilation journals. The result is a grade which says something about the person, not only as a classroom practitioner - the end of an initial course is after all a rather early stage in the process to be making such important judgements - but one which also reflects the individual's ability to analyse their own performance, suggest and implement improvements, recognise and build upon strengths and above all respond to change.

Modes of Teaching Undertaken

On our courses at present, teachers are required to undertake the following modes of teaching:

1. team preparation leading to peer teaching employing a teach-reteach system
2. team preparation leading to team teaching of "normal" classes
3. individual teaching of "normal" classes (observed)
4. individual teaching of "normal" classes (unobserved)
5. "One to one" teaching (one teacher/one student)

It is not unusual in short teacher education courses for activities such as peer teaching to be resisted by course participants and even tutors on the grounds that they are artificial or unrealistic. Such activities are often placed very early in courses as a kind of gentle introduction to the later demands of the "real thing" and this kind of condemnation is very typical of the kind of misplaced narrowly product focused attitude of many novice teachers. Why product focused? Because an

activity can only be perceived as artificial or unrealistic when measured against a supposed end behaviour which is deemed to be natural or realistic. It suggests that at a very early stage in the process people can have a clear idea of what they will be called upon to do after.

A more process focused attitude suggests a number of points:

a) Firstly, a teacher will not be called upon a single well defined role in his or her career

b) Secondly, many future roles are quite unpredictable at any point in time

c) Thirdly that the greater the spread of type of teaching experience gained the more likely it is that a particular teacher will be at least partially equipped for the multiplicity of demands made upon him or her.

A precise match between all early teaching events during an initial course and the future working circumstances of each future teacher is, then, quite impossible - far more important is the possibility that a variety of different teaching experiences may lead the teacher towards the ability to respond flexibly and confidently whatever demands the future may hold in store. Again the process seems far more important than the product particularly since the odds against defining the product accurately are very high and even if apparently achieved will restrict the teacher to coping with the status quo but will not necessarily equip him or her to adapt to new developments.

Pre- and Post-course Activity

It would be reasonable at this stage to question how four week courses, given their brevity and position with regards to the rest of someone's teaching career, can really be viewed as part of a process. To many they seem to have the same status in relation to a teaching career as does the starter motor on a car in relation to a long motorway journey. In other words, it is an essential pre-requisite - the car will not start without it - but once used it is separate from, literally disconnected from, the main business of driving along. Again this is something that has exercised our minds in Sheffield and to some extent we have solved the problem in two ways. Firstly we use a good deal of distance learning. The courses I have been partially describing are intensive four week periods sandwiched within a relatively long 15 week distance learning phase. This is not optional preparation and follow-up but an essential prolongation of the intensive experience. The

distance learning periods both before and after the intensive block help to merge the experiences of the face to face course into both the pre-course and post-course life of each teacher.

The "Part One" Principle

The "part one" principle is the label I have given to the current drive at Sheffield to encourage course participants there and eventually at other Institutions offering similar courses to look upon the course as part one of a still longer process. In our case it can be followed a year later by an advanced course leading to the award of a postgraduate diploma, the two courses being linked by an intervening period of further distance learning.

In this way the initial education period is stretched to about a year and a half, habits of self-evaluation and monitoring are reinforced and it is hoped successful teaching careers will develop.

A Summary and Comparison of Elements of Product and Process Focused Courses

Product Focused Courses	Process Focused Courses
Single foreign language lesson (presumably for shock value)	Series of foreign language lessons - for cumulative reflection and backed up by a journal
four week intensive course	extensions of distance learning either side of course together with possibility of extended further study
pattern of justified presentation, practice and immediate application of techniques	separation of input from output
immediate feedback from teaching practice - i.e. a testing principle	delayed feedback from teaching backed up by a journal
concentration on discrete item materials production	materials production a by-product of teaching - backed up by a journal

This paper was not meant, as I implied at the beginning, to be a propaganda exercise on behalf of the "process party" to the detriment of all considerations of the product. It is, of course, a matter of common sense that any process of teacher education, particularly an initial one must be able to claim that its participants leave it equipped to cope with at least the most predictable and common classroom situations. The process orientation of such courses must be reasonably balanced. There is amongst our novice teachers an understandable thirst for formulae, for recipes, for tried and tested techniques that will help them to face classes with confidence. This is a short term need of which our teachers are arguably more aware than of the longer-term needs addressed by the process elements of the course. It would be churlish to deny it, when it is easily and quite rapidly satisfied and, indeed in these days when teachers are being constantly enjoined to take a learner-centred stance it would be and would appear to be quite wrong to do so. We inject into the course, then, on a more or less daily basis, teaching techniques sessions lasting about half an hour where a particular technique is presented and evaluated. Similarly other longer sessions are devoted to the practicalities of teaching the four skills, exploiting and creating materials etc. etc. Quite deliberately, however, many of the techniques presented are not immediately applicable to the classes that our teachers are meeting in the teaching component of the course. Seldom can they be taken up as a quick fix for the evening's observed lesson. Rather they serve as seedcorn for the repertoire of techniques and procedures that each teacher will develop for themselves in the years to come. Even here, however, the impact of a process approach is evident. Perhaps the most telling sign is in the usage and vocabulary of the TESOL Centre staff. It is rare now to hear anyone talking about **the** way to do something - **a** way is much more common. Teaching practice has been replaced by teaching, trainees by teachers, teacher trainer by teacher educator or tutor etc. etc.

Conclusions

Language teaching is taking place in a fast changing world. The education and preparation of teachers should reflect this. We can, I believe, perceive two distinct tendencies in teacher education and training - product focusing and process focusing. Language teachers like everyone else have a past, a present and a future. If we locate the teacher education course for the sake of argument in the present and if we agree that the future is largely uncharted territory - even for the whole profession let alone for individual members of it - then we have two ways of using the past. With a product-focused course we make the assumption that the past can be used to define the future. We thus use the past to help us generate our products. If the future makes unpredicted demands on our products they are unlucky. Sooner

or later it is bound to and in a sense the consumers of our products intuitively recognise that they come with a "use before date" and a limited shelf-life. I know several schools of English which as a matter of policy anticipate replacing all or most of their teaching staff on an annual basis.

With a process focused approach, on the other hand, we equip our teachers to genuinely exploit their own presents and pasts in a relatively continuous fashion so that they themselves can deal with their own futures.

A great Spanish poet, Antonio Machado, put this better in ten short lines than I have managed to do in forty long minutes:

Caminante, son tus huellas
el camino, y nada mas;
caminante, no hay camino,
se hace camino al andar.
Al andar se hace camino,
y al volver la vista atras
se ve la senda que nunca
se ha de volver a pisar
Caminante no hay camino,
sino estelas en la mar.

Traveller, your footsteps are
the road, and nothing else;
traveller, there is no path,
you make the path up as you walk along.
As you walk along, you make the path up,
and if you turn and look back
you can see the path you'll never
get to tread again.
Traveller, there is no path,
Only the wake you leave behind on the sea.

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